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ABSTRACT

This book of readings in social studies makes available several recent developments in this discipline and attempts to summarize some of the projects, monographs, and special programs being conducted at several major curriculum centers. Five facets of the new social studies are examined here. Part One is an overview of the nature and direction of the new social studies. Attention is given to the administrative problems which are likely to occur with rapid and significant changes such as those envisioned here. Readings are cited for student discovery and development. Part Two details several strategies and teaching-learning techniques advocated by leading social studies specialists. These strategies may be applied--sometimes with modifications--to nearly all the social studies areas and at most grade levels. Part Three illustrates techniques which apply specifically to several of the major fields of study. Part Four offers examples of the interdisciplinary approach, and Part Five demonstrates how all the disciplines and resources of the social studies may be brought to bear on significant social problems in order to effect social change. (Author)

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SOCIAL STUDIES FOR BEHAVIORAL CHANGE

A Book of Readings in the New Social Studies

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PREFACE

Strong winds of change are blowing in the social studies. These changes must be understood and directed toward meeting the needs of individuals and society, so that all the efforts and resources being expended can make a lasting impact. This book makes available to the profession several recent developments, and attempts to make sense of the crazy quilt of projects, monographs, and special programs being conducted at several major curriculum centers. The book is an outgrowth of a recent conference on Teaching the New Social Studies held in Des Moines and sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies.

Five facets of the new social studies are examined here. Part One is an overview of the nature and directions of the new social studies. Attention is given to the administrative problems which are likely to occur with rapid and significant changes such as those envisioned here. Readings are cited for student discovery and development. Part Two details several strategies and teaching-learning techniques advocated by leading social studies specialists. These strategies may be applied -- sometimes with modifications -- to nearly all the social studies areas and at most grade levels. Part Three illustrates techniques which apply specifically to several of the major fields of study. Part Four offers examples of the inter-disciplinary approach. From these the reader may get a glimpse of the complex threads which weave a social order and give it pattern and direction. Part Five demonstrates how all the disciplines and resources of the social studies may be brought to bear on significant social problems in order to effect social change. If the social studies

are to be relevant and intelligently utilized for social change, something like the structure and rationale presented here must be implemented.

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PART I

OVERVIEW

Probably the three dominant characteristics of the new social studies are a concern for learner involvement, a concern for developing an inquiring learner, and the concern for making a learner perceive the programs as relevant. Desmond H. Bragg, Professor of Education at Drake University, explores in Chapter I many of the characteristics of the new social studies including the thrusts common to all facets of the movement and the thrusts which tend to splinter the movement. In Chapter II, Sidney J. Drumheller attempts to make sense of the objectives of the new social studies, giving credibility to the view that the varied programs in the movement are building on a solid foundation.

CHAPTER I

ANATOMY OF THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES
By Desmond H. Bragg

The New Social Studies can logically be divided into three segments comparable with parts of the human body -- the head, the heart, and the hand. The cognitive skills and knowledge roughly correspond to the head, while the affective, valuing, and philosophizing objectives can be called the heart. The actual doing in methods and materials refers to the hand, which must be put to work if the other two organs are to be coordinated to carry out the goals and programs devised by curriculum specialists.

This book is an attempt to bring together the best current thinking on these three major divisions of the New Social Studies.

In the New Social Studies every area of the curriculum must carry its own weight in terms of fulfillment of personal and societal needs. Curriculum specialists urge us to keep the curriculum in tune with the times. Nor is this anything new, for one can sense the presence of a John Dewey or George Counts at the elbow of modern educational curriculum writers.

Translating philosophy into action for the education of youth is not as easy as it appears at first glance, for each of us comes to the task with built-in sets of biases and habits of thought which we alter with difficulty -- especially when confronted with ideas that threaten our cultural, economic and moral security or areas of our competence.

Most theorists of the social studies attempt in some manner to come to grips with reality by referring to the relevancy, utilitarian value, action-oriented, or otherwise practical nature of their new programs, whether these be material, teaching technique, or subject matter. The Deweyan approach to education concerning problem-solving and critical thinking processes is given renewed importance in most of the new social studies curricula. For example, extensive use is made of the social sciences which deal with crucial social problems and issues of our time, such as rapid and profound political, economic and cultural changes. These social sciences are intended to interrelate and to focus on problems and issues, rather than on isolated disciplines.

John Jarolimek, President of the National Council for the Social Studies, has summarized the New Social Studies as follows:

1. They select content from a broad range of sources including history, sociology, economics, psychology, political science, geography, anthropology and the humanities.

2. They deal with social realities such as pollution, racism, peace, war, and social justice.

3. They are to a large extent action oriented.

4. They are largely inquiry or investigation oriented.

5. They make use of multi-learning resources.

6. They regard thinking and the decision-making process as high priority goals.

7. The programs are largely conceptually based--that is they focus on main ideas which serve as organizing frameworks.

8. They show great concern for individual students.

9. They are concerned with values and the valuing process.[1]

Another major characteristic of the New Social Studies is the emphasis on innovation and experimentation which some call creativity. Not all these innovations may stand the test of time, but out of the wealth of new practices some may survive and make significant impact on teaching and learning social studies.

The task of the teacher who would weave these characteristics into a unified pattern is by no means an easy one, but is essential if there is to be any semblance of orderly progress toward the implied objectives. One way to approach the problem is to define the broad objectives of the New Social Studies and then to attempt to translate these into both materials and techniques.

The Head: Cognitive Objectives

It is common to refer to the thought processes and mental skills needed by the student of social studies in terms of cognitive objectives. By this, of course, is meant several categories of mental behavior which can be described objectively in terms of how the student deals with data or factual information--whether it is in the form of written pages, pictures, graphs, charts, maps, or objects found in some archaeological diggings or something from grandfather's attic.

Modern social studies theorists give primary importance to mental

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[1]Jarolimek, John. Unpublished speech given in Des Moines, Iowa, March 22, 1971.

processes involving inquiry or investigative skills. Their assumption is that the ability to search for truth is a skill which all citizens of a democracy need in order to deal realistically with social issues and problems. One cannot deal effectively with the complexities of modern life without a rather sophisticated level of competence in the cognitive skills. Furthermore one cannot use the tools of the major disciplines as he should without somehow mastering the scientific and logical thought processes involved. Closely allied with inquiry skills are the skills of critical, analytical, and reflective thinking. These are all important because the human mind tends to want to accept easy answers for hard truths which go contrary to one's beliefs or value system. As an unexamined life is fraught with pitfalls, so are unexamined beliefs and positions on key issues which determine courses of action and decisions affecting the larger society. Answers to the great social, political, and economic problems are not simple and no amount of wishful thinking will make them so.

Cognitive Skills Expressed in Behavioral Terms

One of the weaknesses of statements of objectives in the past has been their rather nebulous nature, particularly in the social studies where most of the discussions and thought processes are difficult to observe and more difficult to measure. It is now a major thrust of social studies specialists to attempt to outline and describe these objectives in behavioral terms, specifically and clearly so that there can be no mistaking their meaning and purpose. Drumheller's work (see Chapter II) gives special attention to this area of the New Social Studies and shows how such objectives can be used profitably by the classroom teacher. As the reader can readily see, the drawing of behavioral objectives for the

social studies is more difficult than for some subjects which call for less subjective value judgments.

Factual Information and Concepts

Certainly among the most important cognitive objectives for the social studies teacher is the learning of factual information relevant to man's social questions and the improvement of his social institutions. Obviously this approach will delete much of the trivia which has passed for social studies information in thousands of classrooms. Major concepts, ideas, principles, and generalizations which give the student a "handle on life", or information which gives structure and organization to the world of reality through the disciplines, will form the major part of the cognitive information and factual data of the social studies area. For example, instead of learning the names of all the presidents and then all the vice-presidents to prove his scholastic ability, the student may learn the criteria by which leaders are judged to be effective and the proper function of the leader in a democratic state. Discussions will focus on the evaluation of individuals as seen in the light of history and judged by criteria of democratic leadership or social progress resulting from such leadership. Almost all the new curricular materials place great emphasis on concept formation and use of the structures of the disciplines as tools for seeking answers to questions within the realm of the student's abilities. Perhaps the best known materials in this area are those either written or edited by Edwin Fenton of Carnegie Tech Clyde Kohn has done a creditable job in spelling out the key concepts and structural framework of geography as seen by modern geographers.[1] Out of several years of experimentation and revisions has grown the High School Geography Project now produced by Macmillan

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[1]Fenton, Edwin. Teaching the New Social Studies, Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1966, p. 405.

Company, described in some detail later in this book (see Chapter VIII).

Research skills will also be given major emphasis if the student is to learn to use the disciplines to solve problems and think as a social scientist. For this purpose original resources are used increasingly in history teaching, and real problems which call for the use of research skills are being used with increasing frequency in all the social studies (see Keller, Chapter III). The High School Geography Project presents students with geographic problems--for example, of the urban society and the mechanical-agricultural worlds--which would be the proper sphere of the modern geographer. Thus social studies materials are kept relevant. In addition the lines between disciplines are increasingly blurred as cross-disciplined approaches are used to seek solutions to problems.

Concept Development--Spiraling Upward

All these new ideas can be given cohesiveness by the method of teaching major concepts and generalizations in a spiraling manner. The notion that concepts ought to be taught to students in a manner that leads them through various stages of development upward to higher levels of sophistication or intellectual understanding is explored by Hilda Taba, among others. She has said, for example, that certain basic concepts such as cultural change, cooperation, inter-dependence, differences, and causality should be used for their power to organize and to symbolize vast amounts of information.[1] These are significant for the child to learn in order that he may understand and deal intelligently with his world. It does not suffice, however, to simply include these in the curriculum. Because of their pervasiveness, they must be introduced to the child at an early age and reintroduced at each succeeding level of the curriculum in different contexts or in

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[1]Taba, Hilda. Teacher's Handbook for Elementary Social Studies, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Palo Alto, California, 1967, p. 13.

widening spirals of application, to give the student a framework on which to hang both the physical and intellectual world. Taba points out that the concept of interdependence may be introduced with the home by showing that the father performs certain duties to provide care for the family while he in turn depends on the mother to prepare meals and care for the children. At the next level students will see how this concept applies in the community by seeing the relationship between the worker and those who depend on him to perform certain tasks. Eventually at the senior high level the principle of interdependence is shown to exist in the area of foreign trade. The law of comparative advantage operates when states specialize in which they do best, and receive goods and services in return for their own specialties.

Study of the forces and methods related to the concept of social change will be given increased attention in the New Social Studies as teachers seek to make their courses more relevant and action oriented. If the student is to be a junior social scientist and serve as change agent in his own right, greater attention must be given to the teacher's role as change agent (see Chapter XXI, which focuses on teaching for social change). Students must be taught to think of the forces that make for change and to evaluate and use those tools which will serve society best and improve the future of man.

The Heart: Affective Objectives

A second major category of objectives for teaching the New Social Studies is that of the "affective domain", as described in Bloom's taxonomy. The teaching of values and the motivating to perform acts for the "good of the order" will naturally draw considerable difference of opinion among teachers because of the supposed danger of indoctrination,

or the inadvertent forcing of values upon the student rather than the encouragement of student thinking and valuing. In this area teachers will turn more and more to the humanities, religion, philosophy, ethics and the fine arts as students seek to determine what ought to be and find ways to actually become involved in carrying out their value judgments. We must "link belief with behavior" if future citizens are to develop healthy attitudes toward society and their fellow citizens. Commitment to equality of economic opportunity, to racial and religious harmony in a highly pluralistic society, to brotherhood and peace, will require all the dedication and concern that can be mustered if these goals are to be reached with success. The goal of world culture and civilization will remain in the realm of Utopian schemes unless schools, and social studies teachers in particular, can succeed in giving students the direction and fire to move them to intelligent action. The New Social Studies will give increasing attention to this area of thought and action to fulfill one of the age-old hopes of man, that of closing the gap between his ideals and the hard world of reality. (See Dyer's Chapter XIX on Teaching Values.)

As a corollary to value teaching, greater emphasis will also be given to the careful study of other cultures and peoples to counteract the effects of parochialism and ethnocentrism. Chapter IX and X are included to illustrate this concept.

The Hand: Methods and Materials

Let us turn now to the hand, or means of implementing the goals of social studies. Materials will be selected to assist the teacher in reaching

those goals of the cognitive and affective domains described above. Materials for history teaching will focus on primary resources, giving the student opportunity to use his own rational powers of inquiry and to reach conclusions on historical questions. In the behavioral sciences such as sociology and anthropology, students will work more and more with real data from library and community research and seek in life situations their problems for study (see Chapter XVII). The old single text approach to the teaching of the social studies appears to be passe. The words multi-media and multi-text (see Chapter XVI) appear more and more frequently in the literature on the subject of teaching the social studies. The community will be used with increasing competence as a learning resource or laboratory, as teachers assist students to become involved with political and social action groups in their natural habitat. The New Social Studies teacher must be knowledgeable about the resources in the community and must know of persons with an ability to contribute to the students' basic understanding of the major issues of the community.

The teacher must also be armed with a host of concepts, generalizations and principles of each major social discipline which give structure to that field of study. These may or may not be found in a textbook. The teacher can no longer be a specialist in one field only; he needs to understand how relationships cross fields of study, and to be able to use books and references in several fields, combining their techniques, generalizations and concepts in the solution of problems.

Social studies content will center on real issues. Thus newspapers and current periodicals will be used with increased frequency, supplemented by books which approximate in their content the real

problems of society. A good example here is the Public Issues Series done at the Harvard Social Studies Project. A series of pamphlets helps the student see a problem as it might arise in one of many communities across the land.[1] One of these booklets, "Municipal Politics," concerns efforts by some local citizens to secure a recreation park for the ghetto area of the community and tells of resistance they met from the more conservative and reactionary leaders among their fellow citizens.

Students are permitted to live this and similar problems by role-playing, discussion, or actually becoming involved in similar problems of their own community. After thinking through the steps involved and seeking the necessary tools to effectively carry out such a mission for social progress at the grass roots, students can deal more effectively with complex questions.

There is a host of projects to assist the classroom teacher in developing teaching strategies for modern social studies teaching. A bibliography of some of these projects is included in Appendix "A" following this chapter.

International Education

One of the features of the New Social Studies is the growth of interest in internationalism and what has been termed "international education." The concept is not new, but greater emphasis is being given to it. Recurring problems of international scope continue to be major sources of unrest and potential destruction. Courses or units on war prevention, education for peace, and strategies for world order and law are currently receiving attention from increasing numbers of social studies curriculum theorists. Betty Reardon, education specialist with the World Law Fund of New York, is leading a movement to gain greater recognition for peace and

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[1]See Appendix.

war education, while Richard Falk and Saul Mendlovitz, editors of a set of books entitled The Strategy of World Order, have assembled significant documents to teach undergraduates as well as high school students concerning world order.[1]

Increasingly political scientists are attempting to find ways to translate the complicated field of international politics and diplomacy into the language and understanding of youth.

Courses in juvenile law are finding their way into schools. Law students are cooperating with schools to make case studies and elementary legal concepts available to young citizens (see Chapter XVII Mazanec).

The old saying attributed to John Dewey that "the student learns best by doing" is given increased prominence and play in the modern social studies classroom. Action, involvement, commitment, volunteerism all give weight to the claim of greater activity in the social studies class. Role playing, simulation games, mock elections as well as carrying out specific functions for local, state and national political parties are further clues to the drift of change and involvement characterizing the new social studies. A recent publication of the National Council for the Social Studies entitled Promising Practices in Civic Education,[2] is a collection of examples of teachin g techniques in use throughout the United States and an excellent source of ideas for student involvement.

Inquiry and problem-solving require the student to get involved with energy and enthusiasm to carry through social action programs. It is

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[1]Falk, Richard A., and Saul H. Mendlovitz. The Strategy of World Order, Four Volumes, World Law Fund, New York, N. Y. 1966.

[2]National Council for the Social Studies, Promising Practices in Civic Education, The Council, 19 , Washington, D. C.

here that teachers should attempt to foster creativity and the spirit of innovative thinking among students at all levels. There are many ways to do things, and brainstorming as well as other creative activities should be a natural part of the problem-solving, hypothesis-forming process. There are highly imaginative and divergent thinkers in our classes who might never know they have these capabilities unless teachers open their eyes to their possibilities. Dr. Clark's chapter (Chapter VI) gives special attention to the role of creativity in teaching and the methods by which all teachers may get students involved in original thinking and developing new approaches to old problems and issues.

The coming of the franchise to eighteen year-olds opens up a whole new era in the teaching of government or citizenship. Dr. Patrick's chapter (Chapter XII) on the Indiana Government Project shows how at least one group is getting students to become more active in the political arena. Teachers with imagination can develop their own tools and techniques to accomplish the goals of citizenship and political education in their home communities. Creativity can operate at all levels of education.

Political Education and Civil Rights

Because of the great emphasis on civil rights and the use by minority groups of various methods to secure equality and justice for themselves, children should be helped to develop an understanding of what is meant by this term and what it means in terms of human needs, suffering, and actions. Human rights commissions, civil rights and other interested groups are anxious and willing to let students become involved with them in attempting to secure equal legal and social rights for minority groups.

Teaching for Social Change

Certainly one of the most crucial concerns of social studies educators today might be labeled teaching for social change. How can we teach our youth to think intelligently about social change and to use their best thinking in attempts to affect social change in all areas? (See Chapter XXI.) Social change is an essential part of any civilization, especially of one such as ours where new ideas and inventions surface at a dizzying pace. Whole neighborhoods appear almost overnight, and families move frequently. In some of the ghetto schools of large cities like Chicago and New York, we are told the student turnover in some cases is reported to be 100 percent in one school year. In other words, a teacher will end the year with a whole different group of students than those he started with. In the book Future Shock[1] the author, Alvin Toffler, makes a strong plea for educating all citizens for social change to cope with the rapid and pervasive evolutionary developments occurring in our social order. If mankind is to deal effectively with his problems and stay ahead of the continuing crises, education must somehow instill the skills, knowledge and attitudes for successful and orderly change.

Teaching for Social Change Through the Cultural Revolution

One of the more recent phenomena to appear as an alternate social pattern or life style is the movement called by several names and characterized by youth "dropping out","doing their own thing", developing their own life styles and attempting to make the system more responsive to human values and needs. Members of the various groups may live in what are sometimes called communes, are often on some kind of drugs, may "rip-off" or take

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[1]Toffler, Alvin. Future Shock, Random House, 1970.

from the "straight" or traditional society whatever material goods they need and live a more carefree and what appears to be a less disciplined social existence. Their major complaint is against what they call the system, which allows and even attempts to force its youth to kill, and emphasizes material wealth and bureaucratic red tape while ignoring basic human needs and simple justice.

Through discussing such ideas and forces for change, youth may come to grips with social change and learn to work out changes by whatever legitimate means they may develop. Classroom teachers who openly explore crucial issues of this nature will be lively and relevant, and may make tremendous impact on the direction and quality of living for all.

APPENDIX "A"

For the teacher who is interested in seeking further information on specific subject matter projects or for his or her own grade level the projects listed here may serve as a quick reference for ordering and to determine what materials exist on any given subject or field.

Index

Directors and Project Location

Alden, Winthrop S. Mt. Greylock High School, Williamstown, Massachusetts. (History) .....

Anderson, Dr. Lee. Foreign Policy Association. New York City. (World Affairs) .....

Anderson, Wallace L. State College of Iowa. (World Cultures) .....

Angell, Robert C. University of Michigan. (Sociology) .....

Arnoff, Dr. Melvin. Kent State University. (Comprehensive) .....

Bailey, Dr. Wilfred C. University of Georgia. (Anthropology) .....

Becker, James M. Foreign Policy Association. New York City. ..... (World Affairs)

Berlak, Harold. Washington University, St. Louis. (Comprehensive).

Bernstein, Edgar. University of Chicago. (Comprehensive) .....

Beyer, Dr. Barry K. Ohio State University. (World Cultures) .....

Brown, Dr. Richard H. Amherst College. (History) .....

Buchanan, Dr. Franklin R. Ohio State University. (World Cultures)

Cole, Allan B. Tufts University. (World Cultures) .....

Collier, Dr. Malcolm. ACSP, Chicago. (Anthropology) .....

Conroy, William B. University of Texas. (World Cultures) .....

Crabtree, Dr. Charlotte. University of California at Los Angeles. (Geography) .....

Davis, O. L., Jr. University of Texas. (Comprehensive) .....

Easton, David. Stanford University. (Civics-Government) .....

Elliott, Richard W. Westfield Public Schools, Westfield, Massachusetts. (Geography) .....

English, Raymond. ERCA, Cleveland, Ohio. (Comprehensive) .....

Fenton, Dr. Edwin. Carnegie-Mellon University. (Comprehensive)

Fox, Dr. Robert S. University of Michigan. (Comprehensive) ...

Senesh, Dr. Lawrence. Purdue University. (Economics) .....

Shaver, James P. Utah State University. (Comprehensive) .....

Shinn, Dr. Ridgway, Jr. Rhode Island College. (Comprehensive).

Sperling, Dr. John G. San Jose State College. (Economics) ....

Taba, Hilda. Contra Costa San Francisco State College. (Comprehensive) .....

Toy, Henry, Jr. Council on Civic Education, Washington, D.C. (Civics) .....

Wallen, Dr. Norman E. San Francisco State College. (Comprehensive) .....

West, Dr. Edith. University of Minnesota. (Comprehensive) ....

Wiggins, Dr. Suzanne E. San Jose State College. (Economics) ..

CHAPTER II

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES FOR THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES
By Sidney J. Drumheller

The term "general education" has been used for many years to define the focus of the elementary and junior high school. It implies a basic education needed by the young American to live in today's world. A general education should nurture specific social manipulative and perceptual behaviors which will enable the learner to pull his own weight in society and contribute to the general welfare in a manner which is self-enhancing and satisfying. General education refers to the developing of specific behaviors needed by citizens in all walks of life. As the school child matures and narrows his vocational perspectives, his curricular emphasis changes from the training of a citizen to the training of a vocationally competent citizen.

Consider the following two teacher comments regarding the objectives of a forthcoming segment of instruction:

1. This year I'm going to concentrate on teaching about the way in which public dialog and debate have served to make ours a truly representative democracy.

2. This year each of my students will participate in a series of problem-centered groups resulting in an ability to keep such a group on a topic, reduce the threatening member behaviors and guide the members toward a mutually satisfying group consensus.

Both the objectives imply that the speakers recognize the need for dialog in a democracy. The first teacher however is working for some

vague appreciation of the value of dialog, while the second is actually building group discussion and leadership skills. The appreciation skills will grow out of the second teacher's efforts, but the discussion skills have no relationship to the first objective. General education should not focus on the vague but upon essential, non-vocational behaviors.

The first teacher's objective is academically oriented and announces what he will do during the unit. The other teacher's objective is student oriented, and focuses upon the personalized conceptual behaviors expected of each child. Although many teachers perceive the two objectives as nearly identical, the writer maintains that they are poles apart. Their demands on the teacher, their demands on the learner, and their functional value to the learner, are distinctly different. While the first demands little of the teacher other than the pouring out of knowledge, the latter requires the synthesizing of old behaviors with new learnings, so that the learner responds with integrity as a whole person. Specific adaptive behavior patterns are nurtured which culminate in an integrated, self-fulfilled person.

This chapter provides for the teacher a global perspective of social studies objectives with respect to the behaviors needed by the citizen to live in his social world. Armed with such a perspective, the teacher can weed the irrelevant from the curriculum and get to the task of social education.

Every state, city, and large school district in the nation has at one time or another pledged its allegiance to a written collection of social studies objectives. Some of these statements emphasize mastery of an academic discipline, while others focus on the development of a public-spirited citizen. Nevertheless, nearly all the objectives are phrased in

terms of intellectual concept development rather than of specific interpersonal or individual-institutional behaviors.

In Handbook for Social Studies, the Association of Teachers of Social Studies of the City of New York[1] specifies the following purposes:

From the social studies experiences the student should gain:

Experience in Cooperation
Appreciation of the Cultural Heritage
Intellectual Curiosity and Critical-Mindedness
Respect for Accuracy and Suspended Judgment
Intellectual Humility and Tolerance
Ability to Think Clearly
Love of History and Allied Subjects

These objectives are a mixture of attitudes, experiences, and psychological states. Their vagueness makes it unlikely that any educator will attempt to flesh them out. No terminal behaviors are defined.

The Civic Education Project[2] sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies defines its objectives in terms of twelve citizenship goals for a new age. The first two call for development of "a citizen who believes in both liberty of the individual and equality of rights for all, as provided by the Constitution of the United States", and "a citizen who recognizes that we live in an 'open end' world, and is receptive to new facts, new ideas, and new processes of living." The twelve goals emphasize intellectual constructs which are easy to evaluate with well-constructed essay questions, yet by-pass the overt citizen-related behaviors required for living.

The Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies[3]

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[1]The Association of Teachers of Social Studies of the City of New York. Handbook for Social Studies Teaching, Third Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston. 1967.

[2]Roselle, Daniel. "Citizenship Goals for a New Age," Social Education. October 1966, p. 415-20.

[3]Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies. "The Role of the Social Studies," Social Education, October 1962, p. 315-27.

classifies its concerns under four headings -- the behavioral needs in a free society, the beliefs of a free people, the role of knowledge, and the role of abilities and skills. This package contains the germ of a behaviorally-oriented curricular base. It falls short, however, because the whole focus is on the making of an adult citizen. When the seventh grade teacher finds that he cannot evaluate the child's behavior by adult standards, he reverts to the academic objectives he can evaluate with a paper and pencil test. The learner soon recognizes that the only performances which really count in the classroom are those on the written examinations.

The Learner's Perception of His World

Figure I portrays the learner in a democracy, looking at his world. In some cases he looks at it with fear and trembling, in some cases with indifference, in some cases with enthusiastic anticipation. These are emotional reactions. The learner also has some skills which he can use to manipulate his world. He also has supportive concepts or handles which he can use to solve environmental problems with which he is confronted. These concepts and skills have an effect upon the way he perceives his world. If he is able to cope with his world, he is much more likely to perceive it as friendly and supportive. If his skills and concepts are inadequate, he's much more likely to be fearful of the world which he faces. The self-centered world of this learner is at the center of three concentric circles. The first circle, and by far the most important to the child or adolescent, is concerned with his relationships to individuals -- peers, adults, or smaller children. In America we place great emphasis upon social concerns. The child grows up with this perspective. A child unable to cope with the individuals with whom he is

Fig I

THE SOCIAL WORLD OF A LEARNER IN A DEMOCRACY

periodically confronted is likely to see this as an overwhelming problem, and will be unable to tackle more remote or more long-range social problems.

The second circle focuses on the child's problems related to his living in the culture's institutions -- the family, the school, the neighborhood, the adolescent culture, the church, etc. As many of our institutions are currently in transition, the child needs help in developing perceptions of the institution, its relationship to him, and its future role for him and for his society. The young today are angry at, and frustrated by, the culture's institutions, and teachers often find it easier to join the iconoclasts rather than administer therapy.

The third circle is concerned with the individual as a member of diverse democratic institutions, concerned with influencing more remote institutions. Ours is a representative democracy where an individual, as a member of a collection of pressure groups, exerts appropriate pressures to bring changes in society which will hopefully benefit both himself and the larger society. The reader will probably ask why we should even be concerned with problem-solving at this level. However, close examination of our social studies programs in the public schools will reveal that this has been our major thrust for some time. We are concerned with stopping water and air pollution, stopping the war in Viet Nam, strengthening the United Nations, reducing racial tensions, etc. These concerns tend to focus the child's attention for at least an hour a day on causes which he, as an individual, can do little about. At the same time we are withholding insights which could serve as useful tools in solving his more pressing problems.

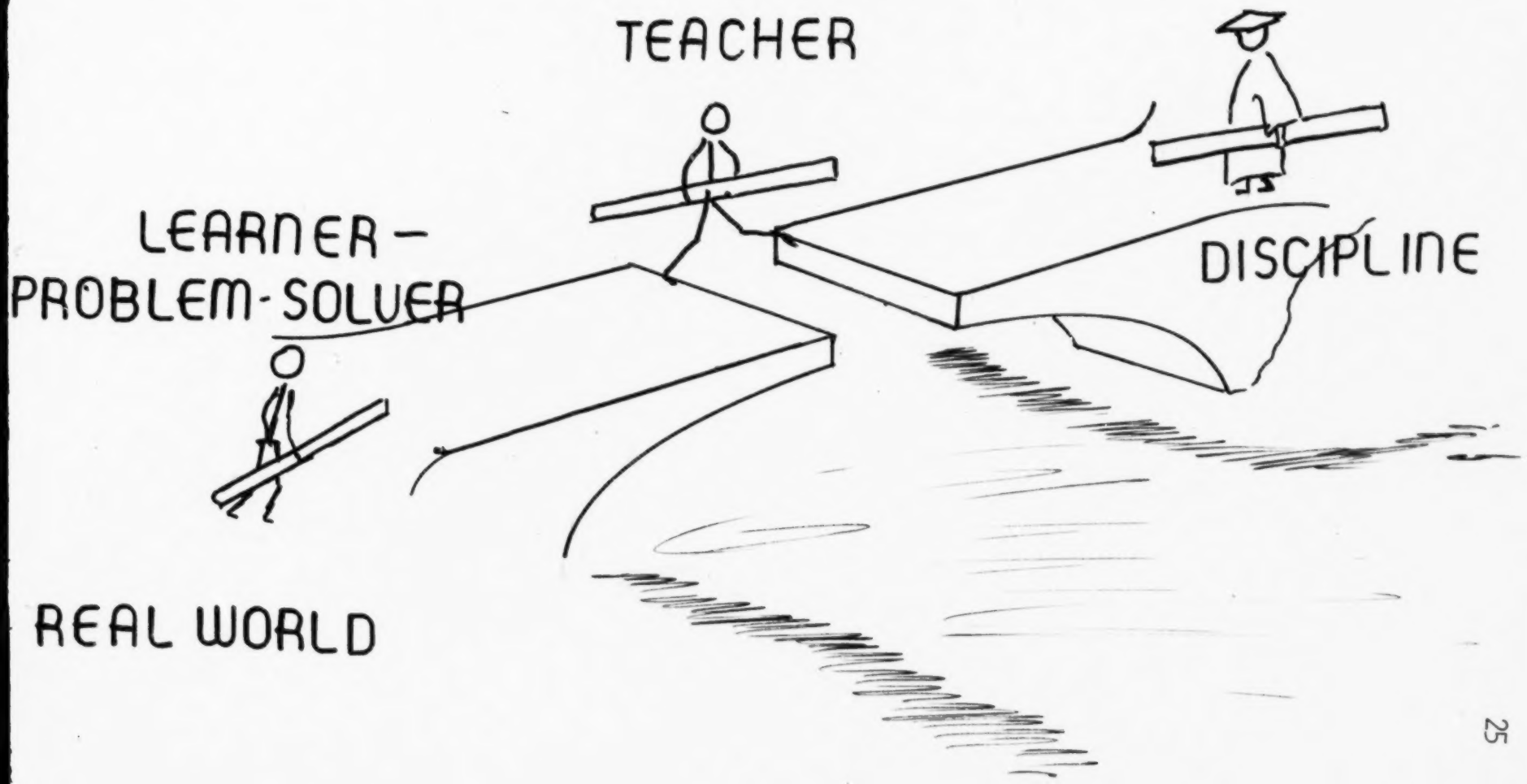
The question which now needs answering is: "How does this objective orientation incorporate the positions of both the disciplined-based programs and the cross-discipline based programs of the new social studies?" Figure II, Bridge Building in the New Social Studies, portrays the learner standing in a concrete world of real life problems and frustrations looking somewhat bewildered over to the disciplinarian -- the keeper of the complex, problem-solving tools of his culture. The disciplinarian is building toward the learner, the learner is building toward the disciplinarian. But the teacher straddling the abyss has a foot in each camp, and is trying to provide a medium for communication between the estranged.

The concern of the new social studies for relevance, for inquiry, and for involvement, testifies to the relevance of the predicaments portrayed in Figures I and II.

While the concern of the new social studies is with the student and his problems there is still a considerable disagreement regarding which of the circles should get the priority. The disciplinarians tend to be concerned with the structures of, and change processes of, the more remote institutions, whereas the cross-discipline advocates might be more inclined to favor the inner circles.

We can summarize, then, by saying that the chief concern of the public school social studies program is the development of specific social behaviors. These behaviors should enable the learner (1) to readily engage in mutually satisfying inter-personal relationships with members of his peer group and the larger society, (2) to participate actively and effectively in the list of his culture's institutions, acting deliberately, systematically, and in an effective fashion to change institutions not meeting the needs of society and its individual members, and (3) to deal

FIG. II BRIDGE BUILDING IN THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES



effectively, both as an individual and group member, with the other social institutions of the world so that orderly social processes are maintained and the lives of the participating members enhanced.

Development of such behaviors is the aim of the second teacher quoted above - the one who focuses on group discussion skills. His objective is to elicit certain behaviors from the student, not to pour intellectual concepts into the student.

The Nitty-Gritty Objectives

The accompanying chart, Figure III, although not exhaustive, goes a long way in specifying the behaviors essential to the learner in the 1970's. The four dimensions of concern overlap but nevertheless need individual attention. The first refers to the global social behaviors required for living in society. Second are the concepts which the average student needs to fabricate social behaviors. Third are the intellectual and motor skills he needs to perform the behaviors. Fourth are the attitudes which trigger the performance of the behaviors. Although it might be possible to develop the global behaviors without some of the concepts and skills, the process is considerably easier for most students if they have a good grasp of both concepts and skills. The attitudes, though often neglected, are essential.

The global behaviors related to inter-personal relationships are shown in the upper left column of the chart. This section is concerned with encouraging the individual to take part in mutually rewarding relationships. Sometimes the student needs to acquire skill in playing games. Sometimes he needs new insights made possible by intellectual constructs. Both these tools can help to modify his behavior. Always, however, he must be committed to the behavior with an attitude. If he is not, the behavior is not likely to occur.

GLOBAL OBJECTIVES FOR A SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM (K-9): BEHAVIORS WHICH ENABLE THE LEARNER TO LIVE WITH PEERS, TO LIVE IN HIS CULTURE'S INSTITUTIONS, AND TO NEGOTIATE EITHER AS AN INDIVIDUAL OR AN INSTITUTION MEMBER WITH OTHER MORE REMOTE INSTITUTIONS WHICH INFLUENCE HIS LIFE.

GLOBAL SOCIAL BEHAVIORS	SKILLS	CONCEPTS	ATTITUDES
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: THE LEARNER WILL: Appraise the adequacy of his interpersonal social relationships and contrive a plan for establishing, and establish, adequate social relationships with associates in each of the following groups who are: 1. culturally appropriate to his sex, 2. appropriate to his developmental level, 3. self-enhancing, and 4. either neutral or beneficial to the larger society:	THE LEARNER WILL: Exhibit skills in each of the following media with a competence appropriate to his sex and developmental level:		THE LEARNER WILL: Inhibit responses in a group which will be either self-deflating, threatening to others, or prevent the group from reaching its goals. THE LEARNER WILL: Maintain his integrity by dressing, speaking and behaving in a manner which is in harmony with his values and acceptable to the larger society.
PEERS OF OWN SEX PEERS OF OPPOSITE SEX ADULTS	IN GAMES IN GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING IN DRESS AND GROOMING IN SOCIAL COMMUNICATION IN SOCIAL GRACES		
REPRESENTATIVES OF CULTURE'S INSTITUTIONS WHICH HE IS LIKELY TO CONTACT	IN INSTITUTIONAL RITUALS AND ACTIVITIES IN GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING IN DRESS AND GROOMING IN SOCIAL COMMUNICATION IN SOCIAL GRACES	THE LEARNER WILL DESCRIBE:	
INSTITUTIONAL RELATIONSHIPS: THE LEARNER WILL: Appraise the adequacy of his ability to deal successfully with cultural institutions with which he is affiliated and contrive a plan for establishing, and establish, functional relationships with each of the following institutions and/or components which are: 1. culturally appropriate to his sex, 2. appropriate to his developmental level 3. self-enhancing, and 4. either neutral or beneficial to the larger society:	THE LEARNER WILL: Exhibit skills in each of the following media with a competence appropriate to his sex and developmental level:	The importance of social contacts in human living. The importance of scientific advancement and education on ways of living. The effect of moral and spiritual values upon human behaviors. Ways of improving family life, community living, and national and international welfare. The ways in which communities, states and nations are becoming increasingly interdependent.	
FAMILY SCHOOL NEIGHBORHOOD	IN GAMES IN GROUP PROBLEM-SOLVING IN DRESS AND GROOMING IN SOCIAL COMMUNICATION IN SOCIAL GRACES IN ECONOMIC TRANSACTIONS		THE LEARNER WILL: Actively support the aspects of his culture's institutions which contribute to, and move to modify the aspects which inhibit, the welfare of its members as well as the welfare of those individuals influenced by the institution.
LAW AND MORES FOLKWAYS	IN DISCRIMINATING BETWEEN ACCEPTABLE AND UNACCEPTABLE BEHAVIOR		
SPIRITUAL INSTITUTIONS	IN EMPATHIZING WITH INSTITUTION'S WAYS		THE LEARNER WILL: Identify with and participate in institutions which support his interests and values.
DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT	IN USING CHANNELS TO INFLUENCE POLICY		
PUBLIC PROPERTY PRIVATE PROPERTY OTHER CULTURES OTHER GOVERNMENTS PRIVATE ENTERPRISE PUBLIC ENTERPRISE	IN USING INQUIRY SKILLS, MASS MEDIA, MAPS, CHARTS, GRAPHS, ETC., TO COLLECT INFORMATION, ORGANIZE AND INTERPRET ABSTRACT IDEAS		THE LEARNER WILL: Inhibit behaviors which violate his integrity and commitments to the institutions.
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN INSTITUTIONS: THE LEARNER WILL: Appraise the adequacy of his ability to affect the policy of the institutions to which he belongs and contrive a plan for, and remedy, his institutional behaviors so that the institutions will deal more effectively with other institutions with overlapping and conflicting interests: 1. with a degree of proficiency appropriate to his developmental level; 2. in a manner which is self-enhancing; 3. the resultant of which is either neutral or beneficial to the larger society.	ALL ABOVE SKILLS ARE REQUIRED.		

The social world of the child is organized here under three headings: inter-personal relationships, relationships with his institutions, and relationships toward other institutions which result from his membership in his own institutions. If the social world of the child were to be viewed differently, the objectives might take another form, yet produce similar terminal behaviors.

Adapting the Objectives to a Grade, Age, or Developmental Level

In any blueprint of objectives for life behaviors, we encounter the same difficult problem -- that of defining the criteria for evaluation of a pupil's performance. The problem is somewhat obscured by our practice of wading through chronologies of America in the fifth, eighth, and eleventh grades, and of chronologies of the world in the fourth, sixth, and tenth grades. In such courses we avoid the problem of appraising the learner's ability to perform social behaviors by asking him instead to tell time by the chronologies we have presented. The student gets only one chance at this "concentration game". Since the test appears immediately after the game, his gaming skill can be readily judged.

However, if we wish instead to appraise the child's ability to establish healthy social relationships with his peers, we need other criteria. We must consider his developmental level and, in some cases, the peers he has available. A boy living in a rural area might find that the only available peers are a boy three years younger and a girl three years older. The skills needed to adapt to this situation are quite different from those required of a boy with peers of the same age in the inner city. The effective teacher must be alert to the varying social needs of each child and must modify instruction and evaluation procedures to meet these needs.

A checklist is one approach to identifying the needs and appraising the progress of a class. To use this technique, the teacher would have to be competent in appraising the adequacy of social behaviors of the age level with which she was working. (Such ability should be a requirement for entry into the teaching profession.) A partial checklist follows which could be adapted for use at various levels.

The second method of evaluation of social behaviors is much more difficult and might require the services of a professional testmaker. This method calls for precise descriptions of expected behaviors along a developmental sequence. Timetables have been constructed for locomotor development, speech development, play development, physical development, and many others. These timetables have been based upon the occurrences of the behavior in large population samples.

Let us suppose that a middle school conducted a study defining the typical behaviors found in fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth grade children in small group discussions, after all the pupils had received rudimentary training in the technique. The distinctive behaviors characteristic of each grade group (which are for the most part age groups) can serve as an instrument for scaling achievement. Separate scales could be developed according to sex, cultural level, etc., if the differences seemed significant. As the group discussion medium is used more frequently, and as the caliber of pupil performance improves, new scales would have to be built.

Let us consider a seventh grade social studies teacher, blocking out a year's objectives for members of a class. Let us assume that the cumulative records of the class are truly records, and contain the answers the teacher needs about each child's progress. Perhaps the first question

Directions

Place an "x" on each line to indicate the individual's relative position.

To what degree (compared to peers) is the learner able to:	High	Average	Low
1. Competently play the following games:			
_____	_____		
_____	_____		
_____	_____		
2. Play the following games in a manner which is socially enhancing to both himself and the other players.			
_____	_____		
_____	_____		
_____	_____		
3. Play a contributing role as a member of a small problem-centered group discussion.	_____		
4. Play the group discussion game in a manner which is socially enhancing to both himself and the other group members.	_____		
5. Establish mutually self-enhancing social relationships with the male peers during activity periods (etc.) in school.	_____		
. . . with female peers in school.	_____		
6. Establish mutually self-enhancing social relationships with male peers at home.	_____		
. . . with female peers at home.	_____		
7. Use learned guidelines and principles to modify his social behavior in structured classroom situations?	_____		
. . . in unstructured situations?	_____		

he will ask is, "Are his relationships with peers and adults mutually satisfying at a level commensurate with his ability?" If the answer is "yes", then the teacher can ignore development in this area for a time, because society will tend to reinforce these behaviors in the child's day-to-day living. If the answer is "no", the teacher must analyze the behavioral shortcomings of the child and provide experiences to remedy the situation. If the boy cannot play baseball, basketball, football, etc., well enough to participate with his friends, he must either learn these skills or learn a compensatory set of behaviors which can provide a medium for social satisfaction. It is the social studies teacher's responsibility to help the learner acquire the skills he needs for social development. The same applies to his ability to perform graciously in a problem-solving group, in conversation, and in grooming himself for a social gathering.

Another student's problem might lie elsewhere than in the realm of inadequate skills. His attitudes or conceptualizations might not be sophisticated enough to enable him to adapt successfully. If this is the case, then the teacher must concentrate here.

Fortunately there is much overlapping of problems, so many of them can be attacked with large group instruction. When the problems are restricted to one or two persons in the class, programmed self-pacing materials are often available and effective. When these fail, individual programs must be tailor-made.

Professionals within a school system can devise objectives, curricula, and evaluation procedures which really speak to the needs and achievements of the local community.

The "starter set" of behavioral objectives defined here can help in developing a vital curriculum.

PART II

STRATEGIES FOR VITALIZING THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES

In Chapter I, a number of the distinctive characteristics of the New Social Studies were delineated and explored. While it would have made a very useful encyclopedic resource to have collected papers defining the nature and scope of each of these innovations, neither the social studies conference nor this book had room for such an exhaustive development. Each package of materials found in Parts III and IV exemplifies one or more of the characteristics. For instance, the inquiry approach is used in both the Field Enterprises Asian Study Program (Chapter IX, and in the Holt, Rinehart and Winston history materials, Chapter XI); simulation games are used in the High School Geography Project (Chapter VIII); and creative activities are a major concern in the MATCH Project (Chapter XVII).

In Part II, three views are taken regarding the most appropriate strategies to use for vitalizing the social studies classroom. The first is concerned with the learner motivated from within -- the approach taken by Keller. The second is concerned with the teacher and the self-analysis techniques he can use to examine his classroom behavior and improve his effectiveness -- Mr. Moore's approach. The third perspective is concerned with teacher-pupil interaction procedures which can be used in the classroom to stimulate meaningful student involvement and behavior change -- the Ratcliff and the Clark approaches. The classification is certainly an over-simplification of the positions taken by the authors, for both Keller and Moore are also concerned with student interaction and Clark is very much concerned with the inquiring creative student.

Marion Evashevski in Chapter VII provides us with a strategy incorporating both individualized instructional procedures and a systems approach to instruction. This Westinghouse Program for Learning in Accordance with Needs (PLAN) provides for the diagnosis of a child's learning needs and uses published materials from all over the country in its prescriptions. This is a monumental undertaking which the whole social studies world should be observing carefully. If Westinghouse could get all published material into its retrieval system it would have an invaluable tool and resource for the teacher planning instruction for a large group, for a small group, or for an individual.

Clair Keller's "The Use of Inquiry Models in Teaching United States History" criticizes many of the packaged inquiry programs found on the market today and argues for a more open-ended inquiry nurtured by a sensitive teacher who knows the child. Keller describes how a teacher can use some of these models in the classroom, gradually weaning the child from dependence upon the teacher for the course of learning.

Kenneth Moore in his chapter, "Instant Replay for Teachers", describes six coding schedules which can be used to analyze tape recorded portions of a lesson in a classroom. With these techniques the teacher can analyze his questioning procedures, the characteristics of his responses to student statements, the general characteristic of his "teacher talk", the general pattern of teacher and pupil talk in the classroom, the way in which student experiences are used in building of new concepts, and the way in which his interaction patterns change from week to week in his classroom. The emphasis here is certainly on what the teacher does.

Roger Ratcliff's paper, "Behavior Modification and Operant Conditioning Techniques," points out how the operant conditioning techniques of B. F. Skinner can be used effectively in the classroom.

Mr. Clark, director of a federally funded project -- IMPACT -- describes some of the project's findings and recommendations in the chapter entitled "Creative Teacher-Student Interaction." While Mr. Ratcliff has been more concerned with the developing of specific behaviors, Mr. Clark is concerned with the learner developing unique responses particularly suited to his needs and abilities.

CHAPTER III

THE USE OF INQUIRY MODELS IN TEACHING UNITED STATES HISTORY

By Clair W. Keller

The newest method promising instant success in teaching social studies, "packaged inquiry", does not seem to provide students with the open-end experiences the term "inquiry" implies. In fact, inquiry, as it is now becoming commercially packaged, actually prevents the student from engaging in at least two essential and creative skills he must learn in order to be inquisitive and skeptical, a true inquirer. First, by providing questions similar to those at the end of the typical chapter in a text, the materials stifle the opportunity to learn to ask questions; second, the materials limit the scope of investigation by selecting the data from which a student is to draw conclusions. There is increasing danger that, in the hands of many teachers, these new materials will become simply new textbooks rather than new methods of teaching.

It is possible for students and teachers through the use of open-end questions to become truly engaged in creative inquiry -- the process of explaining various relationships between social science phenomena by developing inquiry models to ask the questions and related subquestions required to solve, clarify, explain or describe important relationships of social-science phenomena.

Before describing in detail the technique of model building and the teaching of history, let us examine briefly how one learns new ways to teach, and then look at the suppositions upon which this method rests.

Successful teaching is contagious. This does not mean that when we see something appealing we adopt it verbatim; instead the process is one of mutation. One person's reported success serves as a catalyst, for what seems successful to one teacher may not work for another without modification. The use of inquiry models in teaching history is not the only way to teach history, nor perhaps even the best way, but this approach has provided me and I hope my students with some invigorating classroom experiences. It has been an attempt to make history classes something other than an exercise in regurgitation.

The rationale for this methodology begins with the belief that the most important learning which takes place in a classroom is the way it is taught--a Marshall McLuhan derivative. In Teaching as a Subversive Activity, Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner explain this belief.

"'The medium is the message' implies that the invention of a dichotomy between content and method is both naive and dangerous. It implies that the critical content of any learning experience is the method or process through which the learning occurs."[1] In other words, what students do in the class is what they learn. Postman and Weingartner go on to say, "Mostly what they do is sit and listen to the teacher. Mostly they are required to believe in authorities, or at least pretend to such belief when they take tests. Mostly, they are required to remember. They are almost never required to make observations, formulate definitions, or perform intellectual operations that go beyond repeating what someone else says is true. They are rarely encouraged to ask substantive questions, although they are permitted to ask administrative and technical

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[1]Postman, Neil and Charles Weingartner, Teaching as a Subversive Activity, (New York: Delacorte Press) 1969, p. 19.

details."[1]

The second supposition which underlies this methodology states that the primary objective of the social studies should be to provide students with skills needed to explore and explain the relationships between various kinds of social science data. To quote again from Teaching as a Subversive Activity, the purpose of education should be to equip students with "genuine crap detectors."

The third supposition upon which this method is based says that the above objective (crap detecting) can best be accomplished when students and teachers are mutually engaged in the process. To be mutually engaged in the process of inquiry demands that the teacher be prepared to ask questions to which there are no pat answers. To teach students to ask such questions, the teacher's role must be changed so that he, too, is engaged in a creative process of describing, explaining, clarifying and evaluating the various relationships between data in the social sciences. Such an approach calls for a new honesty in the classroom as class discussions shift from "question and answer" to a mutual commitment of finding out. Think of the excitement and revelation when students discover that the teacher also wants to learn. It could be contagious, perhaps even subversive.

Model building focuses primarily upon acquiring the skills necessary for a systematic approach to investigation.[2]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] West, Edith. Developing Skills in the Social Studies (Unpublished background paper #12, Project Social Studies, University of Minnesota, 1965) is an excellent discussion of such skills.

MODEL BUILDING OBJECTIVES:

Skills:

1. The student will be able to systematically investigate problems by:

a. defining terms to state precisely the problem under investigation

b. asking questions and related sub-questions which when answered elicit the data necessary to solve, explain, clarify or describe the problem under investigation

c. determining what data best answer questions and related sub-questions required to solve, explain, clarify and describe the problem under investigation

d. speculating as to possible sources of data

e. selecting best sources of data

f. locating sources of data

g. relating available data to questions and related sub-questions

h. drawing generalizations about the problem based upon available data.

2. The student will be able to formulate the test hypotheses by:

a. clarifying and refining hypotheses

b. asking questions and related sub-questions which when answered elicit the data necessary to sustain the hypothesis

c. determining what data best answer questions and related sub-questions required to sustain the hypothesis

d. speculating as to possible sources of data

e. selecting the most appropriate sources of data

f. locating sources of data

g. relating available data to questions and sub-questions

h. comparing data found with data desired

i. determining whether sufficient data are available to draw a tentative conclusion as to the validity of the hypothesis

3. The student will be able to summarize the main ideas of an historical interpretation.

4. The student will be able to identify the author's frame of reference by relating the summary of an historical interpretation to what is required to sustain an hypothesis or solve, explain, clarify or describe a problem.

5. The student will recognize the tentative nature of conclusions drawn from modes of inquiry.

The affective goal of model building might be described as development of a healthy skepticism toward the ability of any system or technique to adequately solve, explain, clarify or describe problems in the social sciences. The real problems in our society, such as race relations, preservation of environment, and population control, cannot be solved by rational paradigms because they require people to change basic assumptions about the nature of man, the purpose of society, etc. Many of the crucial issues which confront us today are value issues; the best contribution that the social sciences can make is to help people recognize that they are value issues. Students need to understand the limitation of inquiry. They need to realize that while the purpose of inquiry models is to narrow the gap bridged by assumption, that gap still exists. The purpose of inquiry is to measure the extent of the assumptions

used and to recognize that conclusions about the validity of an hypothesis, a clarification of a relationship between social science data, or the solution to a problem, result more from circumstantial than actual evidence. Model building, therefore, should strive to develop the following attitudes:[1]

1. The student is willing to change conclusions if confronted with contrary data.

2. The student is skeptical about descriptions, clarifications, explanations and solutions provided by social scientists.

3. The student will be willing to accept that his or her beliefs rest upon certain values and assumptions.

The inquiry method, while not new to good teachers, is at the core of the new social studies materials now flooding the market. The mode of inquiry developed by the Carnegie Curriculum Center headed by the historian, Edwin Fenton, is perhaps the most useful for history and provides the point of departure for model building.[2] (See Appendix 1.) This mode of inquiry seems deficient in several ways. First, it presupposes that the only way to inquire is to test hypotheses; investigation should be more open-ended. Model building focuses upon deciding what data will be needed, determining possible data sources and selected relevant data. The other steps indicated by the Fenton mode of inquiry are not necessarily omitted, but are modified and rearranged so that students become more involved in determining the requirements to solve, describe, clarify or explain the subject under

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[1]One presenter at a meeting of the NCSS called this writer a cynic because he questioned the ability of inquiry models to get everyone to agree to a rational solution of a problem. Such faith in reason belongs to the 18th and not the 20th century.

[2]Fenton, Edwin. The New Social Studies (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967), pp. 16-17.

investigation. Because there is a difference between testing hypotheses and investigating questions, two different inquiry modes should be used. (See Appendices 2 and 3.) Another difference between the Fenton mode of inquiry and the model building approach is that the latter provides a greater opportunity for students to establish what data are required in a particular instance. Because this approach lends itself to speculation, student involvement is much greater. It is a less mechanistic procedure. The student becomes a thinker and not merely a data gatherer.

When students engage in model building, they must sense the mood of inquiry. As mentioned previously, the best way to accomplish this is for the teacher to become an inquirer as well. The ability to ask the right questions is at the center of inquiry and good teaching. Yet class discussions are usually a one-to-one exchange between teacher and student: One question asked, one question answered. The argument so often offered to justify such a catechism is that students must know the "facts" before they can think. Even granting this dubious assumption, few teachers ever get beyond the first stage of "fueling the rocket." Most social studies teaching stops at the point where it should be beginning. Most energy in the classroom ought to be spent on Stage Two, getting the rocket into orbit. To accomplish this, the role of the teacher must be changed from that of information giver to that of prober, innovator, arranger of learning experiences and inquirer.

The most difficult task in model building is to get students to understand the process. They need to learn how to ask the kind of questions which will enable them to gather the data needed to accomplish the investigation. One way to introduce this process is to probe the several

factors that one would consider in determining the cause of an automobile accident. Such a probe can begin by listing possible causes (hypotheses) for the accident. A list might include:

It was caused by poor road conditions.

It was caused by poor weather conditions.

It was caused by the conditions of the vehicle.

It was caused by driver error.

It wasn't an accident at all but a deliberate act.

It was caused by driver error and road conditions.

The next step is to determine what questions and related subquestions must be answered to sustain one of the above hypotheses. For example, what is needed to conclude that road conditions were responsible for the accident? Such a probe might begin as follows:

Hypothesis: The accident was caused by the road conditions.

I. Was there anything about road conditions that prevented the car from acting normally?

   A. What kind of road conditions cause accidents? (What data are needed to determine this?)

      1. A study showing the relationship between road conditions and accidents.

      2. An analysis of road conditions at time of accidents.

      3. Information about road conditions when accidents occur.

   B. Were any of the road conditions established above present at the time of the accident? (What data are needed to establish this?)

      1. Weather conditions prior to and including the time of the accident.

2. Statements by those present about the conditions of the roads.

II. Would the car have acted normally if road conditions had not been what they were?

A. Did other cars use the road at the time of the accident?

This is a simple and partially completed model, yet it allows students to draw upon their own experience and observation to establish some sophisticated questions about the nature of causation.

Having defined the model and acquainted students with the process, model building begins by selecting a topic for investigation. Topics can be chosen by students or teacher. Student involvement, not the particular topic, is the key to student interest. It is the approach which makes the class relevant to students. For purposes of demonstrating this approach to inquiry, the causes of the American Revolution will serve as the "medium" through which the "message" will be explained.

Since there are two ways to build models--hypothesis testing and the more open-ended investigation--it is necessary to select which mode best suits the class situation. Hypothesis testing was explained earlier, so the more open-ended approach will be demonstrated here.

In order to state more precisely what is needed to determine the causes of the American Revolution, the question is divided into two parts.

First: What happened to make a large number of inhabitants in North America decide to change their status or relationship with Great Britain in 1775-1776?

Second: Why were the issues involving the status of the Colonies with regard to Great Britain not resolved peaceably?

Model building on the first question begins by considering the general question: What do we need to know -- data -- in order to explain why the colonists decided to change their existing relationship with Great Britain? (See Appendix 4 for the entire model of questions and related sub-questions.) The purpose is to refine the model until questions are asked which can be answered by data. The first such question in this example is: What did the colonists believe was the proper political status between themselves and Great Britain?

Having established the requirements for completing the investigation, the discussion turns to the kind of data needed to answer the questions. We are not interested at this time in whether the data are available. Hence the discussion is partly speculative and open-ended because we are interested in data which students believe are necessary to determine the causes of the American Revolution. The purpose is to establish an ideal standard, although the standard might vary with each student. For the question: What did the colonists believe was the proper political status between the Colonies and Great Britain?" A student might decide that a poll which covered a wide cross section of colonial opinion might be the most desirable data. Now such information may not exist, and probably doesn't, but the student should be skeptical of any data which do not approach that standard. The further the available data recede from the desired scientific poll, the larger the data gap, and the greater the leap of faith. The teacher can help by suggesting other sources of information. The discussion also focuses on the validity of sources.

Next, the class, either individually or by dividing the tasks, gathers data for the model. One aspect of data gathering is comparing

what exists with what is needed and in many cases exposing the "data gap." Hence, many questions will remain either unanswered or inadequately answered. This serves to illustrate the problems of reconstructing the past.

Model building can be a focus for several class sessions, perhaps even for an entire course. However, the process does not necessarily require such extensive use. The important thing is to give students practice asking and answering inquiry-oriented questions. One simply pauses during a discussion and engages students in model building by asking:

What do we need to know in order to establish, for instance, who was responsible for the Boston Massacre?

What information would satisfy the above requirements?

Where can such information be found?

With this technique the teacher also may probe beneath the surface of student opinion by discussing what is required to determine the validity of statements made in class. In addition, models can serve as useful tools for evaluating different interpretations of the subject. As students read an interpretation of the causes of the American Revolution, for example, they can determine the parts of the model emphasized and/or omitted by the historian. If one or several students concentrate on one historian's view and then share their findings with the class, a wide range of interpretations may be covered.

How can you determine whether students can build inquiry models? It is possible to devise an exam which tests this ability. A quotation is given which states a position on some part of the topic under consideration by the class. Students are asked to develop a model to test the validity of the quotation. Their answers are to consist of four parts:

1) Make a statement about the validity of the quotation;

2) Determine what questions, when answered, would tell you what you need to know in order to support your statement about the quotation;

3) Discuss the kind of information you believe would best answer the questions asked in part two and indicate possible sources of that information;

4) Discuss the information you have read which answers the questions asked in part two and make specific references to authors and articles.

The inquiry model approach can easily be adapted to different forms of instruction. Used in individual instruction, it enables a student to do two things: First choose his own topic; second, develop his own model at his own level of sophistication. Group work may be more feasible, however, because it better provides for interaction between student and teacher and among students, as well as affording the opportunity for variety. Because data from all the social sciences are useful for evidencing, this method makes possible a true inter-disciplinary approach.

A new technique, no matter how effective, should not be employed exclusively. Social studies teaching should be more eclectic than that. The procedure suggested here is flexible enough to allow teachers to use as little or as much as students can digest. It can be implemented as rapidly or as slowly as teachers desire. It can be the focal point for an entire course, a unit, or a day's work. The procedure can be adopted by an entire school system which provides workshops and training for the teachers, or by an individual teacher who, after reading this article,

understands the technique. No new materials need be purchased, although a good selection of primary and secondary sources is valuable. It is possible to collect materials without a large investment. Current topics which use periodical literature, for instance, could be accumulated easily. What makes this proposal acceptable is that it focuses upon the art of teaching and not, as do so many proposals, upon expensive gimmickry.

DEMONSTRATION LESSON: Use of Inquiry Model to Investigate the Question:

Who was responsible for the Boston Massacre?

Objectives: (For skill and affective domain see those listed previously)

Cognitive:

1. The student will be able to identify the important individuals, events and issues which characterized Boston at the time of the Boston Massacre.

2. The student will be able to evaluate the possible role which individuals, previous events and issues played as causes of the Boston Massacre.

3. The student will be able to compare by citing similarities and differences between the individuals, events and issues which characterized Boston at the time of the Boston Massacre and such contemporary episodes as Kent State, Jackson State, Chicago during the 1968 Democratic Convention, etc.

Activities:

1. Distribute a brief summary of the events surrounding the Boston Massacre.

2. Divide class into several groups. Each group is to write out on a transparency what is needed to determine who was responsible for the Boston Massacre.

3. The transparencies are then shown to the entire class and discussed.

4. Groups are formed again and students are asked to speculate as to the kind of data needed to answer some of the questions raised by models on the Boston Massacre. Each group is asked: If you could perform three miracles, what would you do to get the needed data?

5. The miracles are then compared and discussed as sources of data.

6. An example of an examination designed to test some aspects of model building is then shown.

APPENDIX 1

STEPS IN A MODE OF INQUIRY FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1. Recognizing a problem from data
2. Formulating hypotheses
   a. Asking analytical questions
   b. Stating hypotheses
   c. Remaining aware of the tentative nature of hypotheses
3. Recognizing the logical implications of hypotheses
4. Gathering data
   a. Deciding what data will be needed
   b. Selecting or rejecting sources
5. Analyzing, evaluating and interpreting data
   a. Selecting relevant data
   b. Evaluating sources
      1) Determining the frame of reference of an author
      2) Determining the accuracy of statements of fact
   c. Interpreting the data
6. Evaluating the hypothesis in light of the data
   a. Modifying the hypothesis, if necessary
      1) Rejecting a logical implication unsupported by data
      2) Restating the hypothesis
   b. Stating a generalization

APPENDIX 2

STEPS IN MODEL BUILDING:

TESTING AN HYPOTHESIS

I. FORMULATING HYPOTHESES

1. Listing possible hypotheses
2. Selecting an hypothesis for testing

II. ESTABLISHING REQUIREMENTS FOR TESTING THE HYPOTHESIS

1. Determine what questions must be answered to support the hypothesis
2. determine what kind of data are needed to answer questions raised by requirements
3. determine possible sources of data

III. GATHERING DATA

1. Investigating various sources (primary or secondary) to determine if desired data can be found
2. selecting relevant data
3. evaluating data
4. relating data to requirements

IV. EVALUATING THE HYPOTHESIS IN LIGHT OF DATA GATHERED

1. comparing data found with data desired
2. determining if sufficient data are available to draw a tentative conclusion on validity of hypothesis

APPENDIX 3

STEPS IN MODEL BUILDING

Solving, Explaining, Clarifying Problem

I. STATING PROBLEM

1. Defining Terms

II. ESTABLISHING REQUIREMENTS

1. Determining what questions must be answered to solve, explain, or clarify problem
2. Determining what kind of data are needed to answer questions raised by requirements
3. Determining possible sources of data

III. GATHERING DATA

1. Investigating various sources (Primary or Secondary) to determine if desired data can be found
2. Selecting relevant data
3. Evaluating data
4. Relating data to requirements

IV. GENERALIZING ABOUT THE PROBLEM

1. Comparing data found with data desired
2. Determining if sufficient data have been gathered to generalize about problem

APPENDIX 4

INQUIRY MODEL FOR THE CAUSES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

I. What happened to make a large number of inhabitants in North America decide to change their status or relationship with Great Britain in 1775-1776? (What do we need to know -- data -- to establish this and where can these data be found?)

   A. What was there in the status or relationship to Great Britain which the colonists <u>believed</u> should be changed?

      1. What did the colonists believe was the proper status between the colonies and Great Britain?

         a. Political Status:

         b. Economic Status:

         c. Social Status:

         d. Religious Status:

      2. What did the colonists believe was the existing status between the colonies and Great Britain at the time of the conflict?

         a. Political Status:

         b. Economic Status:

         c. Social Status:

         d. Religious Status:

      3. What did those who made policy in Great Britain believe was the proper status between Great Britain and the colonies:

         a. Political Status:

         b. Economic Status:

         c. Social Status:

         d. Religious Status:

   B. What issues caused conflicts over the status of the relationship between the colonies and Great Britain which influenced the desire for change?

      1. What issues involving the status and relationship between the colonies and Great Britain caused conflict?

         a. What were the conflicts?

b. What issues were at stake in each conflict?

2. What issues of status caused the greatest antagonism to develop between the colonies and Great Britain over status? (What would we need to know to establish this?)

a. Did the antagonism have the greatest appeal as seen by:

1) Intensity of colonial protests and disorders

2) Intensity of public opinion

3) Number accepting and condoning actions of the colonists

b. Did the Colonists believe it was the most important antagonism as seen by:

1) Newspaper editorials

2) Resolutions from political bodies

3) Petitions and remonstrances

4) Utterances of political leaders

5) Observers

6) Letters, Diaries

II. Why were the issues involving the status of the Colonies to Great Britain <u>not</u> resolved peaceably?

A. Why wouldn't Great Britain (those who made policy) grant the colonies the change in status they were demanding and were willing to fight to maintain what they believed should be the proper status?

1. Were there constitutional issues which were thought to be irreconcilable?

2. Were there individuals who sought to profit from the conflict?

3. Why were those who proposed conciliation unable to prevail?

4. Did those in power see a change in colonial status as a threat to British power and prestige?

B. Why were the colonists willing to resort to war in order to change the status or maintain the status at what they believed should be the proper relationship between the colonies and Great Britain?

1. Were the colonists motivated by propagandists of the revolution?

2. Did the colonists believe the British position was a threat to their autonomous assemblies?

CHAPTER IV

INSTANT REPLAY FOR TEACHERS - SELF-ANALYSIS DEVICES FOR THE TEACHER

By Kenneth Moore

Over one hundred teachers in Eastern Iowa are involved in a form of instant replay. This is not the familiar Sunday afternoon replay of home runs or touchdown passes, but a replay of class discussions in almost every subject area and grade level.

Video-tape is often used to record the activities of athletes, speakers and actors so the subject can work on improving any or all of the component parts of the desired behavior. In the Guided Self-Analysis System (GSA) the teacher is the subject and teaching is the desired behavior.

Athletes and others study their behavior in order to improve. Just as football is a global concept which can be broken down into several distinct specific operations or behaviors, teaching is likewise a global concept containing many specific behaviors. Using video-tape the teacher can view and identify specific behaviors to develop or eliminate. Whether it be athlete or teacher, the key motivation is the desire on the part of each to improve his competencies.

HISTORY OF GSA DEVELOPMENT

The Guided Self-Analysis System for Professional Development was developed by Dr. Theodore Parsons of the University of California at Berkeley. The procedure involves using a series of interaction codes to identify,

classify, and qualify specific teacher and student behavior. Guided Self-Analysis (GSA) uses video-tape to record the interaction, codes or schedules to guide the teacher in coding his own tape, and guiding questions and work-shops with other participating teachers to help each teacher complete the self-analysis.

Video-tapes are made on relatively compact half-inch video recorders with little or no disruption of the normal classroom. The camera is small and needs no special lighting. (Most teachers prefer to set the camera to record a fixed area with a wide angle lens rather than have someone attempt to move the camera round the room.) Technology has provided us with video-tape recorders (VTR) as simple to operate as audio recorders. Anyone who can operate a film projector or a sewing machine can operate a VTR. Since the teacher tapes his own regular classes, no extra time is involved in taping. Time is required, however, to view, code, and analyze the 15-minute tape.

SIX CODING SCHEDULES

The Teaching for Inquiry series of GSA consists of six coding schedules. The first four are currently being used by teachers in this area. Schedule A, Questioning Strategies, directs the teacher's attention to the types of questions he asks students. He is asked to classify his questions and the thinking which pupils must do in order to provide satisfactory responses. As with all the schedules, when the teacher codes with Schedule A he looks for one specific type of activity, in this case, teacher-posed questions. The teacher classifies each question he asks during the 15-minute tape as rhetorical, informational, leading, or probing. The schedule then helps the teacher analyze and interpret his overall questioning strategy.

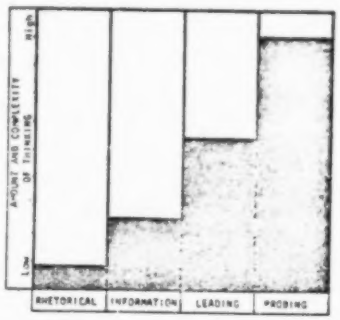
Schedule B asks the teacher to look at teacher responses to student statements. By classifying the responses as closure, verbal reward, sustaining, or extending the teacher will be able to determine how often he is promoting

or inhibiting student thinking. By combining the information from Schedules A and B the teacher will see that it is important not only to ask good questions but to also be aware of what he does with student responses to his questions.

CHART #1

This graph represents the complexity of thinking associated with each type of question and the relative amount of thinking which the pupil must do to give satisfactory response to each type of question. The height of each shaded column roughly represents the amount and complexity of thinking required by the corresponding type of question. Rhetorical questions, for example, require little or no thinking activity and the intellectual task is simple. Probing questions, on the other hand, require more complex reasoning and thus stimulate the pupil to a much greater amount of thinking.

Information questions call for information retrieval. Leading questions require some additional thinking of the pupil, but this is still limited because the teacher provides clues which structure his thinking.



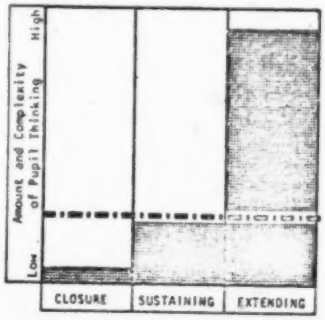


CHART #2

The broken line in the figure represents the level of thinking expressed in a pupil statement. This level may be affected by the teacher's response to the statement. The figure illustrates the most probable direction in which pupil thinking will flow as a result of a teacher response. Closure responses minimize or terminate ongoing pupil thinking. Sustaining responses maintain the current level of pupil thinking without requiring shifts in complexity or amount of thinking. Extending responses raise the level of pupil thinking.

In Schedule C the teacher analyzes all of his classroom talk and classifies it according to questions and responses, instruction, classroom management, behavior management, and other--which includes discussing the last football or World Series game. This gives the teacher a profile of his classroom talk patterns and requires him to consider the relationship of his talk to his role as a teacher.

With Schedule D the teacher maps the flow of all talk in the classroom. The profile will reveal the extent to which he intervenes in pupil statements, dominates the classroom with his own talk, controls the flow of talk, or is permissive in allowing pupils to think through their own thoughts.

Schedule E helps the teacher to assess the extent to which he uses the experiences of pupils in the process of building new concepts or principles. Schedule F focuses on the nature of pupil responses to the teacher's questions to see if the level of thinking required by the teacher's questions is matched by

the response produced by the student.

As a teacher tapes himself at three or four week intervals over the period of a year, he may code each tape with two or more schedules. During this time he will be able to see changes in his coded profiles if he desires to effect the change. It is therefore not recommended that GSA be used as a "one shot" trial, or every day for two weeks, but at intervals during the school year. This allows the teacher to work on specific aspects of his behavior over a period of time in his regular classroom environment.

KEY VALUE--INDIVIDUAL CLASSROOM

Although used successfully in pre-service situations, this writer believes one of the strongest appeals of GSA is the fact that teachers can utilize the procedure in the real world of their own classroom. It gives the teacher a chance to view and analyze his teaching behaviors with the same students he is responsible for teaching. In this sense it is very different from the concept of micro-teaching which is usually enacted in an artificial situation.

Another plus factor is that the system is designed for self-analysis, not for observation, analysis and interpretation by someone else, for example, principal or supervisor. The self-confrontation on the video screen can be a jolting experience. However, the teachers participating in the GSA procedure feel the insights they have gained have made the experience a rewarding one.

The GSA participants in this area (at this writing approximately 45 in the Cedar Rapids schools where the program is directed by Dr. William Rainbow and 60 in schools directed by Joint County School System consultants) represent all grade levels and subject areas. Both elementary and secondary teachers are involved. In addition to social studies and language arts teachers, participants also include teachers of mathematics, science, home economics, business, industrial arts, and special education classes. Since the GSA procedure gives one a descriptive profile, it can be used in a wide variety of classrooms.

Although GSA concentrates on verbal behavior, the video tapes often give teachers new insights into both student behavior and their own non-verbal behavior. The experience gives teachers participating in GSA a common vocabulary to use in discussing the teaching-learning process.

Although one can easily be apprehensive about viewing himself on video-tape and using interaction coding schedules to analyze his performance, it can also be an exciting, informative, and enlightening experience. The writer speaks from personal exposure!

CHAPTER V

BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION: AN OLD INNOVATION
By Roger Ratcliff

A successful teacher must deal with specific people in specific situations. What do you do with that timid little girl who would rather fail than speak up in class? What do you do with the boy who speaks up every thirty seconds?

So often teachers find that their college seminars, methods courses, and carefully preserved units don't help much. By the end of September all these wonderful ideas, all those inspiring lectures, all those brilliant ideas have become hazy memories. Hard reality is that history class that meets Monday through Friday at 11:00 o'clock. Thirty-two faces, some smiling, some eager, some apathetic, and some downright hostile.

But you accept the challenge. You will not repeat the mistakes of last year. You are a professional. Re-read your college notes. "Teach the whole child....individualize instruction....Use content to teach process....Make your course relevant...." My, what admirable sentiments! Fight back the uneasy feeling that these glorious ideas are frighteningly vague. To work, to work!

Throw away the text book, rewrite that ten-year-old course of study. Now you have learning activity packets, teacher-pupil planning sessions, simulations every other week and an inquiry method so logical and simple that even your principal can understand it.

What are the results? Some students fight to stay after school to work on their project. Parents call to find out just what you did to make

their boy want to do his homework rather than go to a football game.

But what about those other students, the one who stops work as soon as he gets his C, the girls who find only hair spray relevant to them, the student who is just as sullen in the middle of a simulation as he was in the middle of a traditional class discussion, the inquiry group who inquires about nothing except when the period will be over?

Well, win a few and lose a few!

Perhaps not, not anymore. After several generations of quiet work a little group of psychologists have developed something which can complement and greatly enhance the effectiveness of any innovative scheme of the new social studies. We now have at our disposal a series of laws or principles which explain and predict human behavior. They are concrete, simple, and can be applied to specific behavioral situations in your class tomorrow morning. The technique of applying these principles is called behavior modification.

A few of these principles which are most important for teachers to know are:

1. Most behavior is determined by the immediate consequence of that behavior.

2. Reinforcing "good" behavior is a more effective way of changing behavior than punishing "bad" behavior. (The terms reward and reinforcement are not quite synonymous but I will use them interchangeably in this brief paper.)

3. The sooner the rewarding consequence follows the behavior the more likely that behavior will be repeated.

4. The consequence must be what the student wants, not what the teacher thinks it should be.

Along about now many of you are going to say you have already

done these things. This is nothing new. You're right. Every successful teacher uses behavior modification procedures - to a degree. But generally they are applied in a slap-dash, unsystematic manner which you have probably intuitively developed through your experience.

I am suggesting that a carefully thought out, systematic application can make for substantial behavioral growth in your students. Here are some examples of how behavior modification has been used in the Newton, Iowa, public schools.

Picture a self contained sixth-grade classroom with one teacher and thirty-seven students. It is the same old story: too many kids, not enough room, not enough materials, a smart and understanding teacher working under difficult conditions.

In December of 1970 one of the students read an article about behavior modification. He thought it would work in his class. He asked the teacher, Mrs. Carol Kramer. She suggested that he write up a workable plan over Christmas vacation. By the time school took up again Scott was ready. He and Mrs. Kramer cranked up the mimeograph machine and ran off thousands of dollars of phoney money. From now on the class was going to be paid. Just coming to school earned you $10. Passing a math test was worth $50 and the successful completion of a social studies unit paid from $50 to $100 depending on the difficulty of the assignment. Preparing a bulletin board display meant $250.

What did the class do with this money? They spent it, of course. Ten minutes of free time, when you could do anything you wanted to that didn't bother someone else, cost $100. Moving your desk cost $10. A trip to the bathroom was O.K. as long as you paid a dollar. (This behavior, by the way, dropped by 80 per cent during the first week of the new system.)

A class meeting was called and Scott explained the new system. The

class made suggestions which were incorporated into the plan. This has become an essential part of the program. Every Friday afternoon the class discusses the past week and revises the program. Writing on desks was a problem. The class decided these budding authors should pay $25 for the privilege. A room with 37 students in it was not an ideal place to study. For $2 you could study in the hall.

The class loved the plan. It was fun but it wasn't meant to be just fun. It was meant to increase study behavior. Not willing to rely on hunches or memory, Mrs. Kramer recorded the number of units successfully completed by each member of the class for the second week of October, the second week of December, and the second week of February. Remember the behavior modification program was instituted in January. The chart shows the behavior of the first 21 people on the alphabetized class list.

(CHART I)

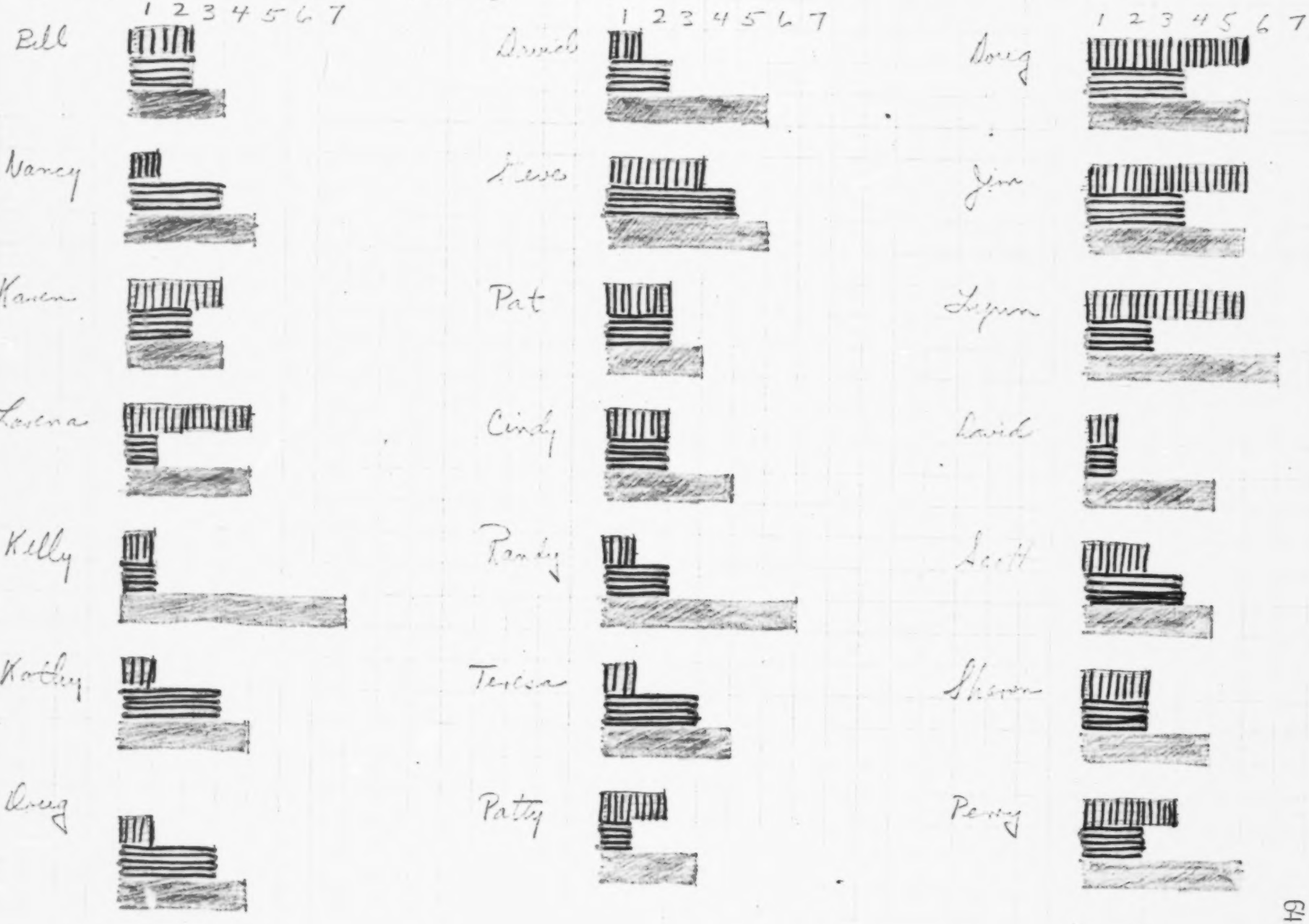
The program was obviously not perfect. It has been further refined since February. But let me ask you one thing. What innovative procedure or technique do you know of that can bring about this much behavioral change in this short a time?

A three-man team teaches American history at Newton Senior High School. The course is required for all juniors. Using inquiry and independent study techniques, the team has created a meaningful and exciting experience--for most of the students. Each student developed a hypothesis concerning a historical topic or question. After extensive research the students discuss their findings and the validity of their hypothesis in a group of no more than six students. Often these discussions are noisy with lots of arguments and challenges. It is a stimulating experience -- for most of the students.

CHART #1

Completed units

Oct Dec. Feb



For some of the students the whole thing was a meaningless drag. Their absentee rate was high. Their research was sloppy, if they bothered to do it at all. They were discipline problems.

One member of this group was Ray. Anyone teaching in high school today knows Ray. He is a big muscular kid who looks older than his years. Ray missed school approximately 3/4 of the time during the first semester of the 1970-1971 school year. When he was in school there was trouble. Ray was suspended from junior high school for drinking. His father was dead. His mother didn't care. During the first semester of the 1970-1971 school year his grade point average was a flat zero.

The teaching team analyzed the situation. Obviously the consequences for study behavior were not reinforcing or rewarding for Ray or others in the program.

Selecting about twenty of the lowest achievers they set up a special program for them. Assignments were devised which did not call for the length of study required in the regular program. After each assignment the student and teacher had a conference. Every correct response was commented on and praised by the teacher. Wrong responses were ignored, if at all possible. Almost every day these kids were in class they received attention for doing something right. This was an extraordinary experience for most of them, who were sure they couldn't do anything right anywhere, and especially in school. Individual contracts were signed between the teachers and the students. You do X amount of work and you will receive Y. The student determined what the rewarding consequence would be.

How did these changes affect our old friend Ray? Ray wanted free time. He wanted a chance to go downtown during classtime. He did that, provided he had completed the amount of work he contracted to do. Massive amounts of social reinforcement and the rewarding consequences of free time modified Ray's behavior. His absentee rate dropped. His grade point

average at second semester midterm was 1.89, almost a C average. His appearance improved. In the spring he went out for baseball, the first time in three years he participated in the school athletic program. His first time out he pitched a no hit game. He says he is going out for football next fall. By the way, the head of the teaching team is an assistant football coach.

At Newton, high school students develop behavior modification projects as part of their course work in psychology class. Kathy was a petite, blond senior with a smile that wouldn't quit. She needed every bit of that good humor when she took on a job last November.

Missy became her project. Missy was a second grader. Missy was the first person you would notice if you happened to walk into that particular classroom. Missy wandered idly about the room, pulling books off shelves and dropping them on the floor. She would write on the board when the teacher was trying to give directions. On occasion she raised the top of her desk, poked her head inside and mooed like a cow. Punishment made her smile. Her first grade teacher declared that she was unteachable and needed psychiatric help. The teacher probably could have used a little help herself after a year with Missy.

Being a good behavioral technician, Kathy first had to determine what specific behavior she should try to modify. It seemed to her that before anything else could happen to make Missy a better student she was going to have to spend much more time in her seat. At that time she was in her seat only about 20 per cent of the period. Kathy also noted that Missy received considerable attention from the teacher and the class when she was <u>not</u> in her seat.

Kathy and Missy got to be friends. That warm easy manner and dazzling smile became very important to Missy. Kathy moved her desk close to Missy's. Then one afternoon something happened. Kathy's attention

wasn't free any more. Kathy read a book, ignoring Missy, until Missy was in her seat with feet on the floor and her hands on the desk top. After exhibiting this behavior for just a few seconds, she got the smile and the attention. As time went on she had to be in her seat longer to get the consequence she wanted. When she was wandering around the room Kathy read a book and ignored her.

It wasn't easy. Missy was a determined little girl who knew how to modify people's behavior. One afternoon she systematically began kicking Kathy's leg. Kathy gulped and read on. The kicking got so bad she couldn't ignore it. Then she made a brilliant move. Taking Missy by the arm she sat her down in a chair facing the wall. Kathy sat next to her, facing the class. When Missy tried to turn to the class, Kathy gently but firmly turned her back to the wall. Doggedly she did not look up from her book. After ten minutes they went back to their seats. As soon as Missy sat still for a minute she got the attention she wanted.

Kathy worked with Missy two hours every afternoon for three weeks. At the end of that time Missy was in her seat 80 per cent of the time! And more importantly she was now getting attention by reading, doing math problems and performing the other behaviors the rest of the class did.

Four months later Kathy returned to Missy's class and recorded her behavior. She was in her seat an average of 70 per cent of the time. Missy still has lots of problems but she had learned that doing school work carried the consequence she wanted. Second grade had become a rewarding place.

Does it sound easy? Is behavior modification a magic pill you can pop and miraculously all problems in your class disappear? I'm afraid you are in the wrong chapter, my friend. To successfully use behavior modification techniques takes skill, study, and hard work. Sometimes a little luck helps too.

Obviously the few principles I mentioned cannot anywhere near explain the sum total of anything as complex as human behavior.

And even if you perfectly memorized all the principles, applying them to your particular classroom situation with your particular students takes skill. A perfect knowledge of the laws of aerodynamics does not automatically mean you can easily design a flyable airplane.

For example, just what consequences would be reinforcing or rewarding for a particular student? How do you move from using artificial reinforcers (Ray and his free time) to the more natural reinforcers of school which motivate most students to engage in study behavior?

With those little words of warning out of the way I suggest you get your feet wet. You can't understand behavior modification until you do it. Try this little project with your class. Grade level, subject matter, and teaching techniques don't matter.

First select a behavior you want to modify. It must be concrete and observable. It might be the number of assignments handed in per day, or the percentage of the class indulging in study behavior.

Second, measure or count the amount of that behavior which occurs before you begin your program of modification. This observation should extend over a period of at least several days. Be sure you record your observations. Don't trust your memory.

Third, use the powerful and simple rewarding consequence which you can apply almost any time - praise or attention. (Remember Ray and Missy.) It is a rare person who does not want <u>honest</u> praise. Flattery doesn't do it.

Now away you go. When you see someone performing the behavior you want reward it immediately.

"Good!"

"Great!"

"That's another done already!"

"Right on!"

It doesn't have to be verbal attention. A nod or a pat on the back might do it. This cannot be a mechanistic reaction. You are not dealing with robots. The more you know these kids as individuals and the more you treat them as individuals the better chance you have of modifying their behavior. Look for a smile. So often that tells you you have scored. Smiles are also very reinforcing to the teacher.

Record each reinforcement you give. Do not trust to memory. I began with a handful of toothpicks in my right hand jacket pocket. Each time I praised someone I transferred a toothpick to my left hand pocket. I'm ashamed to tell you how few I shifted the first day. Each day make yourself do more. If you can't run up to more than fifty or sixty in a period you're not trying.

I know what you are thinking. What about those people indulging in inappropriate behavior - a cute phrase? I mean that boy in the back staring out the window or those two girls whispering together. Here's when it gets tough. Ignore them! They don't exist until they perform the behavior you want. Then be right there. If things get so bad you must do something, handle it as quickly and unobtrusively as possible. Get back to stuffing those toothpicks. If you don't do more than yesterday it's your fault - not the class's.

Each day record the amount of behavior performed by the class. How much of a change did you get after a week or two? I'm betting that it is a significant change. But I won't guarantee it. There is nothing mechanical about using behavior modification in your classroom. Kids are too complex for that.

Just don't cop out, throw up your hands, and think bad thoughts about me. The theory isn't wrong; you just didn't apply the procedures skillfully

enough. Suppose you wanted to increase the number of daily assignments. The average number handed in during the preliminary observation was sixteen. At the end of two weeks of modification the number handed in was eighteen. You're right - not a significant change.

Analyze the situation. Can the class do the assignments? Don't tell me you have directions and there were no questions. How many have given demonstrable proof they can do the assignments? No amount of praise can get someone to do something they are not able to do.

Did you allow the system to deteriorate? How many people did you attend to without the necessary prerequisites - working on assignments? Think of poor Rodney sitting at his desk looking pitiful. Remember when you talked to him just to encourage him to get started? Bad move. If Rodney doesn't work he doesn't get his goody. Inhuman callousness, you say. I don't think so. You are teaching Rodney that wistful looks pay off. Do you really want him to act that way when he is twenty-five? You are teaching Rodney that dodging responsibility is rewarding. That is what I would call callousness.

Are your students not doing assignments because they are chatting - a very reinforcing behavior, by the way? This is a problem. Your reinforcement is not strong enough to overcome this. How can you strengthen your praise by coupling it with something else?

After your analysis of the problem recycle the program and go at it again. I suspect you won't have to. The chances are excellent that your little experiment will modify the behavior of your class. Whether you succeed or not the first time around, keep tinkering. Behavior modification is not an alternative to any of the fine innovative ideas that are bubbling around the social studies field. Don't use behavior modification instead of simulations. Use it in conjunction with your simulations to make them even more powerful teaching devices. In fact, many of the better simulations

already have powerful behavior modification techniques built into them.

These techniques have only recently moved from the laboratory to the school, although they have been used informally for thousands of years. Now they are ready for you to systematically apply to the behavior problems in your classroom. Use them skillfully and watch those problems begin to right themselves. Talk about a rewarding experience! And I say we teachers need all the reinforcement we can get these days.

CHAPTER VI

WHY SMALL-GROUP INSTRUCTION?
By William M. Clark

There is little question that environment is important in learning. Moreover, it is the social dimension of the environment that is most important. People learn from one another, reinforce one another, motivate one another and collectively more towards goals within a social framework. This is the way of learning whether it transpires under the direct attention of a teacher or not.

Arthur Combs[1] has described this as the "meaning" half of the learning equation. The other half of Combs' equation has to do with information or facts to which the "meaning" is attached through some internalization process. The social dimension of relating to others with the information at hand is basic to establishing the "meaning" Combs describes.

There are many opportunities for social interaction now present in schools, but it is our contention that more such opportunities should be organized. Interaction is difficult in a classroom of 25 or 30 students where the teacher dominates and controls the talk patterns, yet studies of U. S. classrooms reveal this as being the most typical setting. There is no way all or even most of the students in such a

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[1]Combs, Arthur W. "Humanizing Education: The Person in the Process." In Leeper, Robert R., ed. Humanizing Education: The Person in the Process, pp. 73-88, Addresses at the 22nd ASCD Annual Conference. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. 1967.

setting can have meaningful interaction during the course of a normal class hour.

There are times when learning is best done alone, by listening in a group or by watching, smelling, feeling or otherwise experiencing. However, most typically, learning is best done in a group small enough to allow all students a chance to relate but large enough to allow for diverse opinions and knowledge.

Small-Group Instruction Nourishes Talent

For too long education has been largely geared to the development of a single talent--academic talent. Little attention has been given to the theory of "multiple talents." Taylor,[2] in an article entitled "Be Talent Developers. . .as well as Knowledge Dispensers," suggests other talents the education system should be cultivating.

He names such talent as: creativity, decision making, planning, and forecasting. They are highly "world-of-work" oriented and should therefore be an integral part of any educational program designed to prepare people for that world! Many educators, however, have mistakenly associated academic talent with one's ability to cope successfully with the demands that lie outside of the classroom. Their reasoning is that if a person does well in school, he will be a success in life. There is mounting evidence that academic talent may only relate to an individual insofar as his ability to acquire good school marks or to perform well on standardized achievement tests.

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[2]Taylor, Calvin W. "Be Talent Developers...as well as Knowledge Dispensers." Today's Education, 67-70, December, 1968.

If teachers are to be talent developers then small-group instruction must become an important part of their repertoire of teaching-learning strategies. Small-group instruction can provide the learning climate in which student talent emerges, is recognized and provided for.

Passive vs. Participatory Education

Traditionally, education has placed students in a passive role. This passive role assumes that all students learn in similar ways, that student interest is collective rather than individual, and that the task of education is to mold students to predetermined standards rather than to develop the unique talents of individuals.

"Participative education", according to Wright[3], focuses on the process of learning which encourages the development of student attitudes that continue to serve the individual beyond the school experience. Also, participative education is characterized by involving the student in the determination of education goals, the identification of individual interests and needs, and in experiences that deal with problems of the world beyond the classroom.

Participatory education places the teacher in a position of being a "coordinator of learning" rather than the dispenser of knowledge.

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[3]Wright, Albert R. "Participative Education and the Inevitable Revolution." Journal of Creative Behavior, 4: 234-278, Fall, 1970.

Small-group instruction then becomes an important process whereby the individual is given the opportunity to become involved and to express his unique talents, interests, and learning style.

Purpose of Small-Group Instruction

When new organizational patterns such as large-group instruction, small-group instruction, and independent study are mentioned, one can get the idea that the purpose of the organization is to either teach groups of different sizes or allow for the student to study alone. These are emphatically not the primary purposes of variable student grouping. Rather the primary purpose of varying group sizes is to individualize learning. The primary purpose of small-group instruction is to provide each individual a chance to relate his knowledge to and with others in a meaningful way.

There are many good things that can be best accomplished when student groups are kept small. By relating his ideas to others in a small group, the student clarifies and internalizes concepts. Teachers have long held the notion of "learning-by-teaching" and in fact reflect this in the typical comment heard from first-year teachers that, "I've learned more this first year of teaching than in four years of training." The students do the "teaching" in small groups and learn by taking a stand and defending it.

The student can exchange ideas and views about material that was covered in some other learning phase. A common mode of operation is to have the teacher give factual data or other input in a large group

and then to follow this input with a small group session. Clarity and integration of material and concepts result. Such a sequence can be extended to include some further individual study of the matter which may, in turn, be followed by another small group sharing session, etc.

By observing the small groups the teacher gets a rare opportunity to see and hear many students in action at one time. From this opportunity he can gain valuable feedback concerning the effectiveness of the initial lesson. He can see, too, potential learning difficulties and based on this insight set the goal for future individual and group activities.

Peer interaction is considered very influential in the establishment of individual attitudes and values. We know that professionals tend more to trust respected colleagues than outsiders and the same holds true for students. More change or reinforcement does come from fellow students so why not structure for this through small-group instruction in an overall design? This is especially meaningful for the social sciences. The students get an opportunity for group leadership, for open discussion, for development of mutual respect, to practice listening and to grow in sensitivity to others.

Lastly, students can gain experience in arriving at group decisions through compromise. We expect our students to learn of the democratic process in schools,and arriving at group decision can be nurtured to this end through small-group experiences.

Basic Classroom Discussion Groups

Stanford and Stanford[4] point to four major patterns of group discussion which most teachers recognize. These discussion groups are: (1) simple recitation, (2) inductive questioning, (3) open-ended questions, and (4) problem-solving group.

Simple recitation is oriented to large-group instruction and serves the same function as a teacher-made test. The emphasis is on fact questions, review of material, and diagnoses in terms of helping the teacher find areas of instruction needing further explanation.

Inductive questioning focuses on concept development with the teacher leading students to "right" answers. Students are expected to draw conclusions from information they have previously been exposed to.

Open-ended questions differ from recitation and inductive questioning in that the teacher asks general questions that have no "right" or "wrong" answers. The nature of the discussion deals with more "unknowns" than "knowns."

Students are encouraged to use their intellects in various capacities, and student opinion and feelings are shared. The role of the teacher is that of a catalyst rather than a source of information.

The goal of this sort of discussion is often upsetting to people. The goal is the thinking and expression elicited from the students. Admittedly, this goal is less tangible and more ambiguous than other goals in education. However, the importance of the goal of a group discussion should not hinge on its concreteness, tangibility, or measurability.

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[4]Stanford, Gene and Stanford, Barbara Dodds, Learning Discussion Skills Through Games. New York: Citation Press, 1969.

The problem-solving group works in a manner similar to that of a committee. In the school setting, the teacher states the problem to be solved. The students are provided the freedom to produce their own answers or solutions.

A goal such as producing a committee report or carrying out specific delegated responsibilities is the end result of the problem-solving discussion.

Strategies in Small-Group Instruction

Too often the phrase "small group" brings to mind a group of people sitting around having a "buzz session." Although this is one good form of small-group instruction there are many others. The form should depend on purpose.

Allan A. Glatthorn[5] presented a classic treatment of this topic during a conference at his school in Abington, Pennsylvania. Glatthorn presented seven distinctly different grouping patterns and of course there are more.

The first pattern cited was called the task group and was described as being much like ordinary committee work. The teacher is not normally part of the group and a student leader helps focus the attention of the group on some specific task to be accomplished. This group is goal-oriented rather than student-oriented.

Another goal-oriented group is the brainstorming group. The group members focus on some problem or goal. Open discussion of the problem is encouraged and many possible solutions are offered. Judgment as to the relative worth of the possible solutions is suspended to encourage a large number of different possibilities. The teacher may or may not

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[5]Glatthorn, Allan A. Learning in the Small Group. Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Melbourne, Florida, 1966.

be part of the group and eventually the group must trim the list of potential solutions down to one or two they believe are feasible.

Similar to the brainstorming group is the discursive group. Here the focus is on the student and on his opinion and discourse on a topic of prime importance to him. No solution is sought but rather the goal is free and open discussion on the topic at hand.

While the teacher is not normally a part of the above groups he is very much a part of the inquiry and Socratic groups. In the inquiry group he serves as the responder, answering only "yes" or "no" to student questions that must, by necessity, be carefully phrased and to the point. When he plays the role of Socrates the teacher reverses this role and stimulates search and discussion by asking carefully phrased, provocative questions of the students.

The teacher remains the central focus of the group when he "re-tells" something in a didactic group. There are times when saying something to a small group is more meaningful than saying the same thing to a large group. Likewise the small group can be a valuable opportunity for one-on-one tutoring and this opportunity should be used for student/student work as well as teacher/student work.

Other patterns of grouping can be designed for other purposes. Special designs for student evaluation, program evaluation, student feedback, projects, role playing, reflective listening, and research would be of value, for example.

The teacher may or may not be the center of the group. He often must take on new roles such as being an observer, informer, harmonizer,

reinforcer, energizer, supporter, regulator, initiator, evaluator, tension reducer, questioner, or listener to accomplish his purpose.

Teaching Group Discussion Skills

Often small-group discussions fall short of teacher expectation due to the participants' lack of discussion skills. Stanford and Stanford's book entitled, Learning Discussion Skills, offers specific suggestions on how teachers might approach the teaching of discussion skills.

Specific skills identified by Stanford and Stanford are: maintaining order within a group, recognizing the value of individual contribution, taking individual responsibility to contribute, taking responsibility to respond to the contributions of others, listening in order to perceive differences and agreement, encouraging contribution rather than argument, recognizing individual roles within groups, and arriving at consensus.

A teacher's role in helping students acquire skill in discussion is crucial. Group feedback which deals specifically with how the group functions is needed in order for students to develop functioning groups.

Miles'[6] work, Learning to Work in Groups, can be helpful to teachers in observing individual roles within groups.

Such roles as harmonizer, energizer, clarifier, deserter, dominator, and vetoer are recognizable behavior displayed by group members. These roles need to be observed and reported to the group as being either

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[6]Miles, Matthew B. Learning to Work in Groups. New York: Teachers College Press, 1959.

positive or negative influences which contribute to the productivity of the group.

In observing the group, it should be remembered that the teacher doesn't always have to be the one to give the feedback. There are times when observation and feedback from a student may be more helpful.

Points to Remember

It is easy to overlook some significant factors that facilitate group discussion. For example, the seating arrangement can make or break the productivity of a group. A circle arrangement, where all group members can see and hear each other, has been used with much success. If the physical arrangement does not maximize, for participants, the opportunity to see and hear, the discussion degenerates into several "two-way conversations."

Small-group instruction needs to develop the concept of shared leadership. Shared leadership, however, does not mean a leaderless group. A common practice is to appoint a group facilitator, but of more importance is how the facilitator perceives his role.

The facilitator need not necessarily be the most knowledgeable or articulate concerning the issues to be discussed. The facilitator ought to be concerned about some of the following factors: (1) Did the group understand its task? (2) Did all members share responsibility of leadership? (3) Did all the members exhibit some degree of trust of one another? (4) Were feelings and emotions frankly expressed or was the discussion a stilted intellectual exercise?

Groups need to emphasize the personal dimension of the learning equation. Individual values need to emerge for clarification. Small-group instruction can provide the learning climate whereby subject-matter content takes on personal meaning.

An individual's belief system, prejudices, and experiences serve as perceptual screens. Individuals need feedback on how these perceptual screens influence attitude, behavior, and learning of themselves and others.

The principle of suspended judgment needs to be frequently practiced in small-group discussion. Simply stated , this principle means withholding evaluation. The contributions of group members are apt to be quickly squelched if the teacher or group members busy themselves in making evaluative statements.

Evaluation is necessary but should be applied after the group has had an opportunity to explore and hear the contributions of the entire group.

Don't overdo content--but don't underdo either. A frequent question to be asked in any small-group discussion is: "Is this remark or question relevant to the group's task?" Small-group instruction can easily become a "bull session" wherein little new information is dealt with. Proper spacing of content input is vital to the effectiveness of small-group instruction in learning. Too much content input might be better done through a lecture. On the other hand, too little content may cause the group to falter and deteriorate into uninteresting dialogues among group members.

Summary

Small-group instruction seems to be a necessary step in changing instruction from that which is vastly large-group oriented to an ideal which calls for more student participation. However, one should not therefore assume there is no place for large-group instruction. Large-group instruction is most appropriate for dissemination of information, showing of films, teaching of certain skill subjects, etc.

Small-group instructional techniques should broaden a teacher's repertoire of instructional approaches and not replace those strategies she or he has found to be effective.

Neither should teachers feel that their leadership function is relinquished when employing small-group instruction. However, teacher leadership in many cases may be less direct and more facilitating rather than controlling.

The purpose of small-group instruction determines the role of the teacher. If the purpose is to elicit student thinking, opinions, and feelings, the teacher's role should be less visible than if the purpose were remedial or one of direct instruction.

Some arguments for small-group instruction are: (1) individuals become the primary focus of instruction, (2) student "productive thinking" is given an opportunity to flourish, (3) individual talent has a chance to emerge, (4) teachers have more opportunity to assess learning problems which may be either collective or individual in nature, (5) students practice communication skills which are essential in adult life and the world of work, (6) students are given time to discuss what

is important to them, and consequently education becomes more relevant, and (7) more individuals become involved in learning when the formality of the large-group instruction disappears.

CHAPTER VII

PLAN--PROGRAM FOR LEARNING IN ACCORDANCE WITH NEEDS
By Howard Strong and Marion Evashevski

WHAT IS PLAN?
By Howard Strong

The ability to adapt an educational program to the human and educational needs of each individual child is a generally conceded goal of education and educators. Few deny the philosophy of individualization of instruction. In recent years increasing pressure has been exerted by educators and the lay public to force schools to develop new and better methods of allowing children to learn and develop their capacities in a way appropriate for their individual needs, abilities, and aptitudes.

It is difficult to deny that the present educational system fails large blocks of human needs. Forcing all children to study the same material at the same rate denies any human, emotional, physical or intellectual differences and makes the defeat of some children predestined.

Many schools and individuals have tried to individualize instruction. Systems such as the flex-mod schedule, CAI (Computer Assisted Instruction), programmed learning, and elaborate communication systems such as dial-access have all laid claim to the ability to individualize instruction. Rarely, if ever, have any of these made any significant change in the role or the function of the child or the teacher at the classroom level.

PLAN is a program that holds great promise to break through the obstacles and handicaps faced by educators and teachers in the past. This program -- PLAN, an acronym for Program for Learning in Accordance with Needs -- is produced and marketed by the Westinghouse Learning

Corporation. PLAN combines the resources of industry, the technical capabilities of the computer, with a sound educational philosophy and a desire to meet the human needs of students as human beings. This project is designed to provide each child a systematic approach to learning based on the premise that each child must be successful in the learning process and that learning must be correlated to the individual needs of each child.

OBJECTIVES OF PLAN

The PLAN program has the following objectives:

A. To individualize instruction in reading, spelling, grammar, composition, literature, communication skills, mathematics, social studies and science by providing:

1. A varying amount of time for the student to take in mastering required, assigned, or selected skills, information, knowledge, abilities and behaviors, according to the attitudes, aptitudes, interests and needs of the individual child;

2. Different learning styles for the same educational objectives, and help for the child in selecting those learning activities which are most appropriate for him as an individual;

3. A student choice of what to study depending upon student interest and need;

4. An insight into the world of work which will give the student both short and long range goals for which to strive.

B. To provide a process whereby each student can have successful learning experiences with a minimum of failure.

C. To provide a process whereby each child assumes the major

responsibility for his own learning process and develops the ability to learn on his own.

D. To provide a process whereby each student develops a responsible attitude not only toward his own work but toward the rights and privileges of those around him.

E. To provide a process which will allow each child to compete with himself rather than against others and experience a high degree of personal satisfaction with his progress.

F. Provide a guidance program which includes:

1. Preparation for an occupation or advanced education.

2. The development of cultural and personal interests, activities, appreciations, insights and skills as a basis of identifying and participating in activities which are deeply satisfying to the student.

G. To provide a process whereby the learning materials and instructional procedures used enable children to learn most efficiently and economically.

H. To provide equipment and procedures which allow students to formulate their own appropriate goals and then select means and methods by achieving selected goals.

To meet the stated objectives of an individualized instructional program, the PLAN program provides four basic components: (1) teaching-learning units (TLU) and other written support documents such as teacher supplements, objective tests, achievement tests, test supplements; (2) a computer management tool used primarily for student accountability and clerical functions; (3) a teacher training program, and (4) a valuation system to monitor both individual student progress and also the success of the entire PLAN project.

Teaching-learning units are the major tools of the PLAN instructional program. A TLU consists of: (1) a behavioral objective which clearly states the skill, knowledge, information, behavior and attitude that the child is expected to accomplish at the end of the TLU; (2) learning activities or strategies designed in such a way that upon student completion the objective should be mastered; (3) a test to certify the student's mastery of that objective.

The student is trained to use the TLU by himself to the greatest extent possible. The learner assumes a great deal of the responsibility for the learning process, with the teacher available as a resource person when the student encounters difficulty.

With the PLAN procedure the child is able to devote as much time as he feels necessary to the learning strategy of each objective before he takes the final evaluation test. PLAN has up to five different learning strategies for some objectives. The child not only has a choice of procedures, but if one method is not effective the first time through the sequence, he can attempt a second alternative. PLAN includes enough TLUs that each student has a choice of what he studies in each of the areas after he has completed the required sequence of objectives as determined by state law, local rules, basic skills sequence and teacher and student selection. The student may challenge any objective at any time he feels proficient. A student may take the test before any of the learning activities, after he has experienced part of the learning activities, or after he has gone through the entire learning activity sequence.

PLAN is a computer-managed program. The computer performs clerical tasks that aid the teacher in planning, designing, structuring and keeping track of the students in the classroom. The computer also scores all objective tests and reports results, with directions on how to proceed

both if the test was mastered and if it was not mastered. The computer helps the teacher with daily and weekly planning activities. As the computer identifies where and on what objectives the students are working, it can suggest groups of students experiencing the same problems who need help through discussion or small group projects. The computer alerts a teacher to the need for special materials or helps which students may need to enable satisfactory completion of an objective. The computer print-out also alerts teachers to potential problem areas. Another major function of the computer is to generate the program of studies for each child and maintain up-to-date records of pupil progress and the degree of mastery of the objectives listed in the program of studies. Information gathered from the spring testing program, along with information from the student's past history and the requirements of the state and local district, are all considered in building the program of studies to accommodate the needs of each child.

It is noted that the computer makes no educational decisions, and is not used as a teaching machine. It has no mystical qualities; rather it is used much the same way as a number of teacher aides could be used.

Because the PLAN process departs so radically from traditional classroom procedures, a program of re-training teachers is deemed essential to the successful operation of the program. The role of the teacher is radically changed. The teacher no longer lectures to groups, passes out materials, maintains tight, rigid control, keeps the group together, tests at the same time. A teacher under PLAN should be able to do what teachers are supposedly trained to do--help children learn.

The change in function is so traumatic for some teachers and unnerving for others that it is necessary for teachers to be brought to

a point where they can fully accept the philosophy of individualization. To do this, PLAN insists that each teacher be given a minimum of five days' training, and actually recommends seven as being preferable. Consultive help is then provided by either school district consultants or Westinghouse Learning Corporation consultants.

The general content of PLAN is traditional subject matter, skills, knowledges, attitudes, aptitudes, behavior. PLAN emphasizes the basic language arts and math skills. Great emphasis is given to the reading programs and the development of arithmetic capabilities.

Materials used by PLAN are all commercially available from educational suppliers and publishers. The big difference in PLAN is not what children learn, but how they learn and at what speed they learn.

Project PLAN has four major types of tests: Achievement-Survey Tests, Achievement Tests, Developed Ability Performance Tests, and Module Tests. The Achievement-Survey Tests are used for placement purposes. Achievement Tests are used to assess the student's progress across a group of modules. The Module Tests evaluate the student's mastery of the instructional objectives of a module. The Developed Abilities Performance Test consists of a battery of tests at each level to measure specific performance skills relating to academic growth and development rather than to content achievement.

PLAN also has developed instruments to measure the affective domain of the program. Included in this category are student attitude survey, student interest inventory, parent attitude survey and parent interest inventory.

In PLAN classrooms, children are allowed to work at their own rate. No one in a PLAN classroom relieves the child of the necessity of learning. The job of learning is faced squarely by the student himself.

Children become more responsible in a PLAN classroom because they must learn to work and share materials with others if they are to succeed.

Children are pleased with PLAN because they understand what it means to accomplish goals successfully. Success breeds success.

Children do learn effectively and efficiently because learning activity is always immediately directed toward a stated and a needed objective. Time and materials are not wasted on re-doing mastered work or on working on materials beyond the comprehension of the child. The matching of the correct learning style with the correct learning activities with the child's need enhances greatly the efficiency of the educational program.

HOW CAN PLAN BE USED IN TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES?

By Marion Evashevski

Let us turn now to three questions: (1) to describe the behavioral objectives in social studies used in the PLAN system of individualized education, dwelling primarily on the cognitive and affective domains; (2) to present the methods and materials used for achieving the objectives; and (3) to discuss the role of the teacher as it is different in PLAN and teacher activities and methods used in teaching PLAN social studies.

PLAN objectives should not be looked at as a non-flexible structure. Rather they serve as a guide to teachers and educators in selecting and developing behavioral objectives for their local use. These objectives may be criticized and evaluated, revised and modified, added to or deleted -- all with the view of arriving at an appropriate set of educational outcomes to meet the needs of a local situation and of individual students. PLAN objectives provide a good basis from which to develop and expand a curriculum, and PLAN provides structure and computer assistance to make it humanly possible for teachers to do so.

Social studies objectives of PLAN at the intermediate level develop skills and concepts in history, psychology/philosophy, political science, geography, economics, and social studies research. There are objectives requiring students to: develop skills in solving personal problems, develop social, personal and political values, develop skills in analyzing information, and develop skills in evaluating suggested solutions to problems. Objectives in geography require skills in using maps and globes. Research skills are developed in using appropriate sources of information and organizing the information into a report.

At the secondary level the objectives are organized into areas of

history, political science, sociology/anthropology, psychology/philosophy, geography, economics, and social studies research. Terminal objectives require the analysis of problems, proposal of solutions and evaluation of conditions or solutions to problems in areas of human conflict and living conditions. Some objectives require forming generalizations and making predictions of social change as a result of change of attitudes and beliefs in the realms of family life, education and leisure, rural and urban life and inter-ethnic relations.

Major concepts have been subdivided into terminal and transitional objectives. Terminal objectives are defined as major growth points in the cognitive, affective, and skill development of students. Transitional objectives are short term behavioral objectives--that is, concepts and skills to learn as prerequisites to the achievement of a terminal objective.

Now let us look at some objectives in terms of cognitive, skill, and affective development, and discover how students accomplish these objectives:

DEVELOP A PLAN WHICH YOU WOULD SUPPORT IN SOLVING A SOCIAL PROBLEM (V).

This is a terminal objective which shows what the student should be able to do as a result of working several different transitional objectives. This objective calls for the second highest cognitive ability--that of synthesis (this is denoted by the Roman numeral at the end of the objective). It also requires the student to recognize certain values which he has and to organize them into a specific plan. This deals with levels three and four in the affective domain. Lastly, this objective suggests the development of research skills in that a student would have to identify and research a social problem in order to develop a solution for it.

Now, let us look at some of the transitional objectives which will be the specific activities a student would do toward accomplishing the terminal objective.

(1) Compare proposals that might help solve a problem concerning human relations. (VI)

(2) Predict causes for the difficulties encountered in the implementation of an adopted plan. (III)

(3) Identify an unjust situation which needs attention, and write a petition to an appropriate person or agency which can either correct the situation or influence a change in the situation. The petition should (a) be directed to a person or agency which could be of help, (b) identify a law which needs correction or a situation which needs attention, and (c) include reasonable suggestions for correcting the situation. (III)

(4) Support your position on an issue involving differing viewpoints. Present your viewpoint to a group. (III)

(5) Given a description of a problem and differing viewpoints on the problem, infer possible values that account for these viewpoints. (IV)

From this sampling of transitional objectives one can see that various cognitive levels are implemented to achieve the terminal objective, which is of course only one cognitive level. Also in the process of working these objectives it is inevitable that a student begin to develop some values of his own dealing with the specific problem which he has chosen for study. The research and discussions as well as written work required ask the student to develop these skills in order to achieve success.

The methods for achieving these objectives are illustrated by the sample TLU (Teaching-Learning Unit) shown (Fig. 1). This particular TLU makes use of several different sources for the student to read and asks the student to do a variety of activities from working with a partner to participating in a group discussion to interviewing a public official.

A student may choose from a variety of TLUs to accomplish the same objectives. One might stress reading, another might emphasize group activities, another could make use of more audio-visual material, and another could delineate activities for the independent student to do.

When a student has completed his TLU and feels he knows the objectives, he will take a module test (a module being similar to a unit of study). In social studies, module tests usually consist of two parts: Objective and essay. The teacher must correct the essay part and the computer will correct the objective section and then notify the student of his score. If the student has successfully mastered the objectives he may go on to another module. If he has not done well, the test result will advise him to restudy certain or all objectives and then either receive certification from his teacher or retake the test.

From time to time throughout the year a student's retention of the objectives is tested by PLAN Achievement Tests.

Materials used include both textbooks and paperback books, as well as magazines, newspapers, and various other educational pamphlets. Much use is made of audio-visual materials such as records, filmstrips, cassette tapes, and overhead projectors. Simulations are often called for. Standard social studies equipment such as maps and globes is used as much as ever.

A PLAN social studies classroom is equipped very much like any other social studies room. However, because of the individualized nature

of PLAN, it is not necessary to have 30 copies of any one book, but rather only one or two copies. PLAN can then use a wide variety of different titles and materials.

In PLAN the role of the teacher is markedly different from that in a non-individualized setting. He does not spend most of his time correcting tests and assignments, planning lessons and then teaching them to a class as a whole. A PLAN teacher must deal with his students individually and in small groups. Usually only small numbers of students would be working on the same thing at the same time, so that the teacher must become familiar with a variety of different materials.

PLAN teachers act as tutors to individuals or small groups, working at increasing understanding through clarification and explanation, at motivation, and at extending concepts. The teacher also acts as a counselor to students with learning problems, behavior problems, or to individuals planning and making decisions about their educational program and progress. Lastly, the PLAN teacher acts as a discussion leader and general resource person.

The routine of planning lessons is virtually eliminated for a PLAN teacher. However, the successful PLAN teacher must spend time planning strategies for individual students with problems and also for supplementing PLAN activities with his own ideas and ingenuity.

The methods used by a PLAN teacher are nothing extremely new or revolutionary. The actual methods used to teach the subject matter are primarily incorporated into the TLUs--inquiry projects, role-playing, simulations, levels of questions, etc.

Two methods become of primary importance to the PLAN teacher in the roles of tutor, counselor, discussion leader, and resource person, however, First of all, a teacher must learn to deal on a one to one

basis with all students in both academic and personal matters. A teacher must also learn to deal with small groups where he can and must (because of the intimacy of the situation) relate to each individual.

Secondly, questioning and diagnostic techniques become extremely important to the PLAN teacher. Because the teacher is dealing individually with students, their problems both academic and social become more evident to him than ever before. By using question and diagnostic techniques a teacher can identify the problem and then work with the student towards a solution.

A PLAN teacher is a very busy person who must be patient, resourceful, and possessed of almost limitless energy. Under PLAN, teachers have found new approaches to teaching and they have found themselves knowing individual students better than ever before. PLAN has proved to be a causal factor for their renewed commitment to teaching, and thus they enthusiastically put forth the effort necessary to make an individualized program succeed.

(Fig. 1)

4-157-2 IT'S THE PLAN, MAN PLAN 70

Step 1. OBJECTIVE:
5469 Given two or more alternative plans to solve a problem, present a justifiable reason for accepting one plan over another.

Example: Given the New Jersey Plan, the Virginia Plan, and the Connecticut Plan to solve the problems of representation in Congress, justify your reason for accepting one plan over another.

USE	DO
One Nation Indivisible	(a) Read "Place Yourself in History" on p. 141. Using your knowledge of colonial history and your own values, select the alternative you would have taken. In a few brief statements, justify the plan of action you chose.
Economics Readings for Students of Eighth Grade United States History	(b) Read pp. 23-25 and the first half of p. 26. (c) Some Congressional acts are described on the bottom of p. 26 and the top of p. 27. Read the description of these acts and list by dates those plans that would not be justifiable to Adam Smith.
	(d) Compare your list with that of a classmate. If the lists are different, discuss the points on which they differ. After discussion, check your answers with the Answer Sheet at the end of this TLU.
One Nation Indivisible	(e) Read "The Webster-Hayne Debates," pp. 235 and 236. Which plan would you favor? Use historical evidence and your own values to write a brief justification of your choice.
	(f) Do some research to find any available information on the history of white-Indian relationships in America (especially before 1830). Find information about what the white man did to the Indians and their land, about the many different tribes of Indians, their types of government, their attitudes toward property, and their cultural practices. Keep any necessary notes and examples in your notebook. Continue this research for at least two full periods.

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Step 1. (continued)

USE	DO
	(g) Answer the following questions concerning the Indians to yourself. *1. Whose land was it anyway? How do we determine ownership of land? 2. Can two totally different cultures live peacefully together? 3. Was our culture "superior" to that of the Indians? 4. If the Indians got only what they wanted (guns, booze, etc.), would this have destroyed their culture? 5. Was the Red man doomed when the first white man set foot on this continent? Why or why not? (h) Decide from the following alternatives what our policy towards the Indians should have been in the year 1830. (Select one.) *1. As it was. 2. Be kind, but bring our culture to them and protect them from outsiders. 3. We honor their culture and we live among them with our culture. 4. Draw a boundary at the Mississippi River. The Indians have everything to the west of it. Only what the Indians want and will trade for crosses the boundary from east to west. 5. Set a boundary at the Mississippi River and nothing crosses, not even what the Indians want. 6. All white men return to Europe. With the approval of your teacher, form a discussion group of classmates (at least three) working on this module. Each member should describe his plan and present justifiable reasons for the selection of this plan. His reasoning will be open to group challenges, questions, and suggestions. (Information collected in your notebook concerning both past and present Indian conditions may be used as evidence for justification of a plan.)

*Adapted with permission. *The Seminar: Key to Student Involvement* by Lee Swenson and Don Hill. Aragon High School, San Mateo, California.

Step 2. OBJECTIVE:
5470 Suggest likely causes for the difficulties encountered in the implementation of an adopted plan.

Example: After reading the background on the electoral college system, suggest likely causes for the difficulties encountered in the implementation of eliminating the system.

USE	DO
	(a) Using the information you have gathered concerning Indian affairs and possible arguments against your plan brought out by students in the discussion in Step 1 of this TLU, list all of the likely difficulties and their causes that you could encounter in the implementation of this plan.
One Nation Indivisible	(b) Read pp. 88-90. List the various elements mentioned here that could lead to difficulty should King George III enforce his plan of mercantilism.
	(c) Read about the problems of land additions to the Union on pp. 271 and 272.
	(d) List as many elements as you can that might lead to difficulties if Henry Clay's plan to admit California to the Union were followed.
	(e) Check your list with the causes and actual difficulties mentioned on pp. 273-275.
Instructional Guide	(f) Read Part 1 of the IG at the end of this TLU.
	(g) Select two of the following goals and using Part 1 of the IG, for each goal suggest likely causes of difficulties in the implementation of any plan to reach the goal. 1. Schools will remain in full operation 12 months a year. 2. The U.S. will withdraw all troops from Vietnam and follow a foreign policy of neutrality. 3. The legal voting age will be lowered to 17.

Step 3. OBJECTIVE:
5471 Devise a plan to solve a problem and, following the interview format below, interview a public official concerning your plan.

Format:
1. Ask the official what he thinks about the plan.
2. Ask the official how he is able to influence the adoption of the plan.
3. Question the official on possible difficulties in implementing the plan.
4. Question the official on the impact of the plan on the community.

USE	DO
	(a) Select one of the following problems or any other problem of interest to you, and devise a plan to solve the problem. 1. Lack of recreational facilities in your community 2. School facilities that are unpleasant, cold, insufficient, dull, etc. 3. Excessive violence or vandalism in your school or community 4. Control of teen-age curfews, regulations, codes, etc. 5. Need for additional school clubs, activities, or materials 6. Keeping school playgrounds, gyms, pools, etc., open after school hours and on weekends 7. Scarcity of teen-age employment either after school hours or on the weekends 8. Irrelevant, dull, or boring curriculum or course work
Instructional Guide	(b) Read the IG, Part 2, for help in developing your plan.
	(c) List any public offices that might be concerned with your problem or plan.
	(d) With the help of your teacher, arrange to interview an official from one of the offices you have listed.
	(e) Conduct an interview with a public official, following the format described in the objective.
	(f) Make any revisions needed in your plan in light of the information obtained in the interview.
	(g) Make an agreement with your teacher as to how the interview should be evaluated.

PART III

INNOVATIONS IN DISCIPLINED APPROACHES TO THE NEW SOCIAL SCIENCE

Our academic disciplines are the storehouses for the knowledge accumulated in Western Civilization. The credentialed scholars in these disciplines are constantly sifting the knowledge and practices and credentials of the practitioners. The social sciences are a collection of such disciplines including sociology, history, political science, economics, anthropology, ethics, etc. Occasionally marriages are perpetrated between disciplines providing us with umbrella-disciplines such as social studies, social psychology, etc. Most educators do agree that there is little room for purely discipline studies in the kindergarten and that there is limited room for cross-discipline studies in the advanced stages of doctoral programs. There is however, a great deal of disagreement as to where the transition should take place from the real life experience to the cross-discipline studies, and finally to the high discipline studies. Some argue that the discipline studies should occur as soon as possible and that studies in biology, history and algebra should occur in the elementary school, while others argue that there is little need for them even in high school.

Participants in the New Social Studies are not agreed on this point. It's quite possible that this disagreement is healthy and that students should have an opportunity to learn in both camps as they are confronted by teachers engaging in the debate. At least they should have an opportunity to see the discipline as a tool or a resource for civilization and not as series of academic oases into which they are submerged for hour-long periods within opportunity to orient themselves or to catch their breaths.

"High School Geography Project" is one of the most exciting projects to come out of the New Social Studies. The use of simulation games as one of its most salient features enables the materials to hold the attention of the high school student and sustain his interest over extended periods.

Sister Clifford's chapter, "Asian Studies Inquiry Program," describes Field Education Publications high school program for the average or above high school student. In this program the student must use an inquiry approach to glean information from 15 paperback pamphlets of from 48 to 64 pages each.

Steffen Schmidt's article, "Latin American Area Studies," is a position paper describing the function of Latin American studies in a secondary school program. The author emphasizes the need for discipline thinking and cognitive knowledge and skills needed in this area by today's competent citizen.

Judy DeTuncq in her presentation, "U. S. History for the Slow Learner," describes the one year (plus) Fenton program published by Holt, Rinehart and Winston. The course uses the Fenton inductive teaching approach to history made famous by his secondary school materials, "The New Social Studies."

John Patrick in "American Political Behavior," describes the Indiana Curriculum Center's course for the ninth grade, "American Political Behavior." This is a program which focuses on contemporary politics, controversial issues and the political concerns of the students.

Kamilla Mazanec in her presentation, "The Drake Law School Project," describes some supplementary materials developed by the Drake Law School to give students insight into our legal structure and their rights and responsibilities under it. The materials are as yet unpublished.

John Kilgore's article, "Developmental Economics Education Program (DEEP)" is a description of the Des Moines, (Iowa), experience with the primary school materials in this project. DEEP was established in 1964 by the Joint Council on Economics Education, a non-profit educational organization affiliated with the American Economics Association and divisions of the National Education Association.

CHAPTER VIII

HIGH SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY PROJECT
By Sharon Cousins

On a recent day the following articles were found on the front pages of U. S. newspapers: "Thousands March to a Different Chant," Washington Post; "Unemployment Rate 6.1 Percent of Working Force, Black Jobless 10 Percent," The Philadelphia Inquirer; "In 3 Years of Talks, 22,000 Die," Des Moines Tribune; "Thousands Walk to Fight Poverty," The New York Times; "House Votes to Revive S.S.T." Des Moines Register; and "Spiro Assails Protest, Even if Nonviolent," Chicago Tribune. This was not a special day, but typical of any day. Youth are faced with problems -- world problems. It is true that other generations have faced problems, even world problems, and they have made it; what is different today? There is a difference. Today the world consists of individuals in constant contact with many others. Every individual has his own ideas and sometimes -- in fact many times -- they are in conflict with others' ideas. We recognize that man is different from lower animals -- because of his ability to reason; yet it is quite evident that today's education system has failed to develop this ability, or there would not be the misunderstandings among peoples and nations that exist today. We as teachers should no longer treat all students the same by asking a question and expecting a uniform answer, while we then (with the authority bestowed upon us by the title teacher) determine whether it is "right" or "wrong." We can no longer hide behind textbooks, worksheets, tests, and the revered answer book. We must face the task of helping students develop their abilities to reason as individuals in a populated society. This is a tremendous task and cannot be done without understanding of the basic goal: behavioral and attitude change.

The High School Geography Project can help develop an individual's ability to reason. No more finding the answers in the book, no more simple answers. Life is not that way, and that is what students have to face when they leave the ivy halls. This material is activity centered with an emphasis on doing.

The project consists of six units: Geography of the Cities, Manufacturing and Agriculture, Cultural Geography, Environment and Habitat, Political Geography, and Japan. Each unit includes several activities. There are no textbooks; instead the project is multi-media. For all units the students have resource books and manuals. Other material varies, depending upon the unit and the activities.

Let us look in some detail at the activities for the first two units: Geography of the Cities and Manufacturing and Agriculture.

The first activity of Unit I is entitled, "Site Location and Growth." Students are given five maps of different time periods and are asked to decide on the best location for a city at that period in history, emphasizing the importance of the reasons for their selections. Next they assume the role of young frontier lawyers facing the task of selecting a city in the unsettled West (Western boundary the Mississippi River) to begin their law practice. After all students have chosen three possible locations, maps are shown on the overhead projector of the actual cities existing during these time periods. Discussion follows on why their selections did or didn't become cities. In the last part of this first activity, students draw suburbs, emphasizing reasons for the location of the suburb in relationship to the city, and listing functions a suburb should provide.

The second activity, entitled "New Orleans," involves examination

and analysis of the city of New Orleans with the use of stereograms and stereoscopes. Stereograms are aerial photographs and stereoscopes are optical devices which make the photographs appear three dimensional. Students examine why railroads, roads, industry, docks, commercial areas, and residential areas are located where they are.

The third activity involves the study of the shape and structure of a city and is done by using census data from Chicago. First students develop general theories of city shape and what influences its growth. With this theoretical knowledge of cities and their growth the students predict the age of buildings, density of population, and age structure of families. The actual figures and information are then given to them and the activity is concluded with a discussion of the accuracy or inaccuracy of their predictions.

The students are now ready for "Portsville," the main activity of the unit. Portsville is the fictitious name for the city of Seattle. Students are given peg boards and Lego blocks. Different colored blocks represent different parts of a city, such as commercial, public buildings, industry, single family housing, multiple units, high residential, railroads, cemeteries, parks, and landfill. Students read material about Portsville in 1850-1880 and look at some old photographs of Portsville. Then in groups they construct Portsville of 1850-1880 with blocks. They present their finished Portsville to the class, explaining and justifying its growth and structure. They do more reading about its past history, read old newspapers published in Portsville, and study more photographs. They are given another tray of blocks to construct the growth of Portsville between 1880 and 1890. After presentations, more material is read and studied and another tray of Lego blocks is used to

show the growth of Portsville from 1880 to 1900. After the last presentation it is explained that Portsville is actually Seattle. With a current city road map they can compare and discuss Seattle's growth to date.

After examining, analyzing and constructing cities in general, the students focus on cities with special functions. They are given several photographs and a list of special functions a city may provide. They are asked to match the photographs with the descriptions.

The second unit is a study of manufacturing and agriculture. The first three activities deal with manufacturing and the last four with agriculture. First, with a map showing location of industries, they discuss why manufacturing is located where it is and what factors actually influence location, such as labor supply, raw materials, cost of labor, demand of products, etc. Then they are given several maps and descriptions of different industries. With their partners they must decide what industries are represented by each map. Then the class discusses characteristics of different industries which would help determine location, such as market for the product, raw materials needed, transportation costs, etc.

The next activity is designed to illustrate the importance of manufacturing today. First a handicraft economy is compared with a highly industrialized economy. From a corporation or industry students obtain information about expenses and products. With this information they make two flow charts--one of the corporation's flow of money and one of the corporation's flow of goods and services. The students complete this activity by simulating corporations. The class is divided into several corporations, each with a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, sales manager, personnel officer, and production and

purchasing officer. Each corporation is given the problem: Where are we going to locate our plant? With information provided on labor supply, wages, raw materials, transportation costs, etc., for 15 different cities, each specialist must figure out what would be the best city for his own special needs. At board meetings each officer presents his material and explains his choice to the other members of the corporation. The board then decides upon the most suitable location. The presidents of the corporations present the decisions to the class, justifying their selection. There is no one right answer; several locations could be easily defended.

The second part of this unit deals with agriculture. To understand the importance of agriculture, students first do an activity on "Hunger." It is easy to read about hunger and study maps about where hunger exists, but to actually know hunger, one must be hungry. With this in mind students go on a "Hunger Diet." For three days they eat the same amount and kind of food that the average resident of Southeast Asia eats. The diet consists of two bowls of rice, one tablespoon of sugar, one tablespoon of fat, one glass of milk, and two tablespoons of green vegetable or half a small apple. At the end of three days the students relate their experiences and feelings. They may lose weight, have headaches, not want to work, sleep more, lose sleep, or get angry quickly. With this experience to help them understand better the problems of hunger, they try to understand how hunger affects the lives of Southeast Asians. Two possible solutions to the problem are studied and discussed; producing more food and population control. Students look at maps to discover where agriculture is practiced. They study several crops to learn their climatic needs, nutritional value, and farming methods. Then they are

ready to make suggestions which might increase food production.

They learn that farming throughout the world is not modernized as it is in the U. S. They listen to recorded interviews of a wheat belt farmer, corn belt farmer, farmer in the Columbia Basin Irrigation Project, farmer from Costa Rica, and three Polish farmers, including one from a collective farm. With information from the interviews and from additional materials, they learn how to calculate cost per acre, yield per acre, and income per acre for several crops and livestock. The students are then prepared to become farmers in Settler County, Kansas. In the "game of farming," students are given 160 acres of land, $3,000, appropriate farm and machinery. They farm three years in three different time periods. The first time period is 1880-1883, the second is 1919-1921, and the last is 1933-1935. Each year they must decide which crops and livestock to raise and how much of each. After making each year's decisions, they are given outcome cards which describe climatic conditions and market prices for that year. They will experience prosperous years, drought, disease, and depression. To aid them in deciding what to raise, they study graphs of market prices, newsreels, and newspapers of Settler County from these particular periods. Some students during the Depression go broke and go to the city to hunt for a job, while others pull through the Depression and continue farming.

The descriptions given are brief explanations of the type of activities the High School Geography Project involves. Students do not work independently at all times, but are given the opportunity to learn from each other through group work and work with a partner. They are given the opportunity to think, create and reason.

An important question is, "What do the students think of the

Project?" After one year, a student evaluation showed 90 per cent of the students felt they learned more and actually enjoyed the course. We may not be able to measure their learning on existing intelligence tests or basic skills tests, but there is a way to evaluate their ability to reason. Students upon finishing Portsville in Unit I were given road maps of Minneapolis and were asked to explain in theory form the shape and structure of this city. They had not studied Minneapolis at all, but with their knowledge of how cities grow and theories of their structure, nearly all students could explain how Minneapolis grew and could justify their reasoning. This ability to reason will enable their generation to solve some of the many problems our generation has created.

CHAPTER IX

ASIAN STUDIES INQUIRY PROGRAM
By Sister Mary Doreeta Clifford

In this paper we shall examine three major topics: A rationale for Asian studies, the Asian Studies Inquiry Program of Field Educational Publications, Inc., and what a teacher has to do to teach this program intelligently.

First, why should we have a program in Asian studies? Because more people live in Asia than anywhere else, it behooves everyone to know something about that part of the world. When we consider that Asia has become a sort of shatterbelt in the world of geopolitics, then studying Asia becomes a necessity. In the Nineteenth Century, when Japan emerged from isolation, America and Japan knew very little about each other, and it took many years to establish any kind of mutual understanding between countries. China has been isolated in much the same way since 1949. Very few Americans have visited China in the last ten years, very few of the accounts we have of China are current, very little intelligence of what is going on in China comes out through American sources for publication. Therefore, for many reasons it is important that we study Asia.

Let us turn now to the history of the Asian Studies Inquiry Program. Concern for teaching about Asia was common during the Korean War and after. In the early 1960's, programs funded by the Office of Education were initiated at both the University of California and at Stanford University, in which secondary teachers became prepared to teach Asian Studies. At Stanford, courses were offered in Asian history, philosophy, religion and culture, to prepare teachers with a background in Asian

studies. In this program no teaching tools or units were developed. The creative teacher had to construct her own program.

At the University of California, John Michealis drew together a group of secondary teachers and a group of specialists from the Oriental Institute, who prepared position papers on topics essential to an understanding of Asia. Teachers from the beginning worked at writing units for their own schools. The program continued for six years, producing 35 units which were taught in 200 schools on a pilot basis. The teachers then selected the 15 they found most significant. These 15 units became the basis for the Asian Studies Inquiry Program. Teachers discovered that students responded best to the units in which they read what the people from the Asian country said, and what people from other countries--Europe and America--said when they met the Asians for the first time. Teachers in the program worked with the material to eliminate the narrative and the explanations, so that all that was left was an introductory paragraph and the documentary.

This program consists of 15 booklets, divided into three great themes. The first is "Cultural Traditions in Asian Thought." The five books in this packet prepare students to understand the continuum of Asian culture. Included are books on Taoism, Confucianism, Buddhism, the background of Chinese literature and art, and Gandhi and his peace program for India. The second theme is, "Changing Patterns in Asian Life." Books in this unit are, "East Meets West," "Mao Tse Tung and the Chinese People's Republic," "Life in Communist China," "The Modernization of Japan," and "Relationships between the U.S. and Japan." The third unit, "Traditional Patterns of Asian Life," includes, "Man and His Environment in Asia," "Food and Survival," "Man and Woman in Asia," "Class and Caste

in India and Southeast Asia," and "Cultural Patterns in Asian Life." Each of these books has a teacher's manual which outlines the objectives for the individual unit and suggests activities.

The documents in the Asian Studies program are not difficult to read. At times, however, they are Sixteenth Century, and so the language is rather involved. Some are legalistically phrased. Some are translations from the Japanese, and therefore a little stilted. But better readers should have no trouble with the documentaries. For the poorer reader, another program is available. The World Inquiry Program, covering Africa, Asia, and Latin America, is based on documentaries also, but contains more narrative portions. The reading level is fifth grade; the level of sophistication of ideas is mature and adult. A poor reader in grades eight through eleven could quite comfortably read through the World Inquiry Series and keep up with the same units that other students were doing in the Asian Studies Program.

Because this is a documentary study, a great deal of research is necessary to prepare children for what is to be discussed in class. Part of this preparation is done in the introductory paragraphs; part of it is done in the documentary itself. The teacher must use a lot of ingenuity to introduce the unit and to create the kind of climate in the classroom that is conducive to an open-minded approach to another culture. One of the basic accomplishments of this series is that it can help students to recognize and to overcome their misconceptions, stereotypes, and preconceptions about other people, in order to really try to understand unfamiliar cultural patterns.

This is a very challenging program to teach. It lends itself to a lot of flexibility, but it is not an easier way to teach than a multimedia package or one that is very highly structured. There are teachers'

aids; there are good teachers' manuals, but they are suggestive. The teacher must tailor her program to meet the needs of her own students at the level at which she teaches the program.

The program has certain distinguishing characteristics. First, the authors of the documentaries are outstanding people historically--they are the people who made Asian history. Marco Polo's first visit to the Orient, for instance, recounts what he thought the people looked like, what he thought they were doing, what he thought their cultural patterns were. Furthermore, the authors of the texts are distinguished Asian scholars. Dr. Michaelis had at his disposal all of the Asian experts at the University of California. He was thus able to bring together documents that are not generally available.

Second, the program is inquiry and conceptually oriented. The student reads the documents, and the discussion that follows is absolutely free. There are no "right" answers to be achieved. What is to be achieved are general objectives--on the cognitive level, the affective level, and the behavioral level. These outline what the student should be able to do when he finishes the program.

Third, the objectives are not mutually exclusive. In some programs, although the students are asked to use an inquiry approach to a problem, there is an answer key in the back which tells the students what they ought to have arrived at. This is self-defeating of all inquiry. If we are going to have an open-ended approach to studying Asian cultures, then we have to have absolute openness and no "right" answers. What happens if your students form misconceptions about the Chinese and the Japanese from reading the documentaries? You must open up discussion to such an extent that the misconceptions themselves become a tool in learning. The child begins to recognize bias and prejudice and misconceptions, and begins to identify as

such some of his feelings and reactions. When he begins to feel that they are misconceptions, he will want to change them. Thus the objectives are in total harmony with the program, and are not asking the teacher to do things which really close off discussion.

Fourth, there is a teacher-learner philosophy behind the program. The teacher and student inquire together into what the documentary means to them. The idea that the teacher is the person who gives out all the answers, and the student is the one who returns these answers in an examination, is out. This program involves the teacher in exactly the same kind of inquiry in which it involves the student. The children have every reason to expect that the teacher will give his reactions to his first reading of the documentaries, so they can compare reactions and so that the students will have the benefit of learning from what the teacher is inquiring into. It is not a cut and dried program. The teacher and the students make a new program of these texts every time the study is taught. This program provides a handle for introducing serious research. Students find out that using documentaries is very interesting and very authentic. They are no longer satisfied to read a little paragraph in a tertiary source that talks about a book which used the document.

Fifth, student involvement in this program takes many different forms. We shall consider these as we look at the objectives of the course.

COGNITIVE OBJECTIVES

The cognitive objectives are very important. This program was not meant to be a little compendium that tells the number of square miles and other random samples of data related to a country just as it would appear in an almanac. With that kind of a book you can't really develop understanding

and empathy for another culture. The Asian Studies Program is not geared to having students know the names and dates of all the Chinese dynasties, although they may very well end up by saying, "Chou dynasty, which produced Confucianism and Taoism, was a tremendously fruitful golden age of China." They may eventually be able to identify certain dynasties which are so closely connected with the data in their text that they can recognize these as being exciting, important eras, and they will probably know where they fit. Students do this without consciously memorizing dynasties. The kind of data the children get command of is related to understanding people.

1. To become acquainted with major Asian civilizations, economic, political, and social institutions which contributed to their durability, and the role of major religious and philosophical traditions in shaping human behavior.

In becoming acquainted with the various civilizations, the students learn something about their institutions. For instance, from the book on traditional patterns, they get a very good understanding of the well field system of landholding in China. They read a man's report on the difficulty of harvesting his rice this year, with an explanation of the marginal land he's using, its relationship to where the well is, etc. The whole complex brings the well-field system into focus, and the discussion that follows helps them understand the traditional land-holding pattern.

A teacher interested in introducing innovative methods into the classroom may easily create a simulation of a traditional society in which land holding is based on status and role in society. The students can then begin to understand who decides who gets what economically in

that kind of system. The documentaries provide ample data for creating a simulation. Or the children might write their own simulation on the basis of information given to them in the documentary. This information is exact and traditional, and is explained the way a Chinese would explain it to each other and to others. There are others ways for the teacher to help the children impose order on what they know after they have read the documentaries, such as making charts to show economic progress, working out games, and other innovative things.

2. To better understand one's own culture through the study of sharply contrasting cultures.

When we read a European's description of his first contact with China or Japan, we learn a lot more about the European than we do about the Chinese or the Japanese he meets. When he praises some things and blames other things, we become aware of the frame of reference of the author. Everything he sees he compares to something he knows. It is a human tendency to bring to our understanding of something new all the misconceptions and preconceptions and stereotypes we have. The program helps the student to realize that to really understand other people we must try to see them as they are, and not make invidious comparisons between the way they do things and the way we do things. This program helps build the notion that differences make things interesting.

3. To become aware of deeper insights into the processes of cultural interaction and change as the many interconnections among Asian civilizations are explored.

In the booklet, "East Meets West," the Japanese reporting on Perry's expedition describes the Americans as having big noses and red hair. Perry didn't have that many red-heads in his crew, but they tended

to be blond, and so the Japanese classed them all as red-haired like foxes. This was a pejorative term; they liked dark hair. Neither are we usually aware that everybody in Asia considers our noses outsize. We consider their noses flat. Thus youngsters can become aware of deeper insights than the first reaction on meeting. They can analyze the process that took place when foreigners began to mingle, to inter-marry; to carry on various trades, to live permanently in each other's countries. They can see instances where failure to understand the mind of another country led to a complete misunderstanding of its intentions.

4. To explore the impact of Western patterns of culture on the economic, social, and political institutions of Asia.

East is always meeting West, and there are several areas so touchy that every meeting is a confrontation. One of our biggest problems today is our having closedoff China. We have to face squarely the problem of isolating China. One of the best ways to approach it is through studying our former contacts with China in terms of mistakes we made in the past and what we can do in the future to remedy those errors. We were allies of China from the middle of the Nineteenth Century up until the present time. Then suddenly in the Twentieth Century we closed each other out. Recently the State Department has started giving visas to scholars and others who want to visit China. In all probability China, if it accepts our invitation, will become part of the modern world.

5. To explore backgrounds of understandings that will be useful in dealing with problems and making decisions related to American-Asian relationships.

If Americans are going to accept the notion of China's having been

made a member of the United Nations, then the change will have to come through the schools. There is a great deal of opposition in our country to the idea of China's entry in the U.N. We have to address ourselves to the problem of a country with 900 million people which we have, for all practical purposes, said doesn't exist.

6. To explore the problem involved in developing mutual understanding, and in communicating, co-existing, and cooperating with Asian peoples.

This is important especially as we talk about the problem of withdrawing from Vietnam. We need to understand that the Vietnam problem is not an American domestic issue, but rather is a problem of international relations. The Asian peoples are having the same domestic problems with regard to the war that we are having. Mutual withdrawal will be beneficial to both.

7. To clarify terms and concepts and eradicate misconceptions and stereotypes related to Asian peoples.

This objective is the most difficult of all on a cognitive level. We need to help children recognize frames of reference, bias, propaganda. There are many kinds of examples of propaganda and biased arguments. Many publications can be introduced as documentary evidence of the variety of opinions held in America today regarding Asian peoples and our relationship to Asia. These would be very useful to supplement the documentaries in the text.

AFFECTIVE OBJECTIVES

What are we trying to do about values with regard to Asia? Some intellectual values are directly connected with the inquiry approach and

the child's understanding of what he is doing when he tries to study history. In the past our textbooks have perhaps given the impression that everything America does is right.

1. To develop the ability to understand points of view of other peoples even though there may be deep disagreement with them.

The ability to understand points of view of other people who are engaged in an altercation with us is the best way to come to an understanding of what the altercation is about. This openness to other people's opinions even though we don't agree with them is one of the values that comes out of using the documentaries. A student who develops an open mind can determine what kinds of evidence he is using and what kinds of generalizations he can make on the basis of that evidence. If it is all documentary, then the student can identify the frames of reference of the authors and their purposes in writing the documents. Children often have an open mind toward documentaries that they don't usually have toward a textbook. They are willing to say, "I don't agree with what the person thinks, but I do believe that it is a fair expression of his opinion."

2. To develop an awareness of the contributions that studies of great and little traditions can make to improve skill in interpreting and understanding ways of life.

Sometimes we feel that a small country--especially a small Southeast Asian independency--has no great things to contribute to the West. But the fact that Thailand has been able to continue to exist as an independent nation when all of the other nations in Southeast Asia at one time or another were under European domination is significant. Students will be interested in how that one nation was able to maintain either its

neutrality or its independence during periods of great stress or strife in Southeast Asia. We can learn from old civilizations that for a culture to have survived intact for several thousand years is no small thing.

3. To be able to appreciate art forms, music, and literature of peoples whose standards of art are quite different from our own.

In "East Meets West" a Portuguese describes having to listen by the hour to Japanese music and tells what the sound does to his sensibilities. Nevertheless this man has to listen to the music because it is part of his duty to his host. Your students may feel this same way when they listen to Japanese music. Having heard someone else express the same sort of resentment to it, they may be more willing to listen with an open mind.

At various times in our history we have been very open to Japanese culture. In the late Nineteenth Century there were many Chinese and Japanese museums of art, and the avant garde people were all agog with interest in Asian culture. Then the events of the early Twentieth Century killed that interest in Asian civilization, and we taught kids to hate. For almost 30 years, we faced the American people with the idea that the Japanese were a yellow peril. Having taught people how to hate so well, we now have the job of reversing the decision. We should not presume because we are in the teaching profession that we have rid ourselves of all of our prejudices, and that we can approach Asian studies with an open mind. The lucky children are those whose teachers are willing to look into a matter along with them and revise their own standards in terms of what we now know about our shrinking world and our need to understand each other better.

4. To develop an openness to new experiences so that we might better understand our own reactions to the familiar.

5. To develop a sympathy and understanding of the many problems which Asians are trying to solve.

We need to develop, for instance, a sympathy for the people of Vietnam--both North and South--who want to be free. We should try to help our students avoid closing off an understanding of the people of the North because we happen to be fighting against them.

6. To grow in respect for the dignity of persons.

When we see how the Japanese looked upon the first white man, and the white man looked upon the first Japanese, we notice that they didn't really consider each other as quite standard human, because they didn't come up to their preconceived notions of what a person should be. So our openness to the human dignity of every person will have ramifications for all the social studies that we are involved in. Value judgments that are made in studying any culture other than our own open our children to a better understanding of all minority groups.

7. To develop an awareness of the limitations of knowledge about non-Western people, the contributions of special studies, the methods of inquiry involved in producing knowledge, and the need for continuing study.

As they read through the documents, the youngsters often want to know more. There is a dearth of materials that really make the foreigner understandable to us. Students begin to realize that working in Asian studies, investigating Asian problems, and continuing work going on at Asian studies research centers, are all necessary.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

1. Given primary source materials about Asian peoples, the student should be able to identify the frame of reference of the writer or speaker.

A student should be able to decide what the author's relationship was to the incident he describes, and why he has his own point of view.

2. He should be able to detect oversimplification and superficial generalizations that tend to be made when the emphasis is given either to cross-cultural similarities or differences.

A student on first reading a document may say, "All Chinese do this." But if he reads further he finds that there are all kinds of exceptions to the rule present right in the documentary. He begins to realize that you can leap to conclusions which are less than worthy and which cannot be substantiated on the basis of the documentary material. He begins to question the basis on which generalizations are made and realizes that we must support a generalization with evidence.

3. He should be able to make comparisons, inferences, and generalizations that require the use of non-Western concepts and values.

A student ought to be able to make generalizations based on what the people thought they were doing, and on their frame of mind when they made their decision. This skill really requires top level thinking.

4. He should be able to recognize and analyze the process of Inquiry (discussion) as a viable method of investigating cultural developments.

Having read one of the documentaries and taken part in a discussion which led to certain generalizations, a student ought to be able to look back and say, "How did I get to this generalization?" He should be able to listen in a discussion for two things--for content and for concepts. He should learn to identify the process by which he arrives at his conclusions.

5. He should be able to recognize certain art forms, literary genre, religious life styles, cultural patterns, etc., as specifically Asian regardless of where he meets them.

6. He should be able to communicate his discoveries about Asian peoples in oral and written forms.

Reports from discussion groups, generalizations, reports from outside readings, are all part of the communications skills that are required of social studies. This is where the teacher gets the objective evidence on which to grade his students.

7. He should be adequately prepared to analyze and seek Asian style solutions to known Asian problems.

It is hoped that we can introduce students to the notion that the Asians can find better solutions to Asian problems than the U. S. can. The Asians ought to be able to find solutions to their problems which are typically Asian and which they can implement if we let them. This does not mean that we are unwilling to help when we are asked to, but it does mean that we should cease to impose our ideas on them.

CHAPTER X

AREA STUDIES: EMPHASIS LATIN AMERICA

By Steffen Schmidt

Knowledge is a dimension of both objectivity and affect. We demand that it be uninfluenced by emotion or personal prejudice, and yet also expect that it will "do something to us" -- that it will be meaningful, that it is worth arriving at. If we can agree that knowledge is the objective of education and if we can agree that knowledge, as I suggest, is both an empirical reality and an "involving" experience which touches our emotions, then we should seek to find the most functional way of using facts and emotion. These two elements must be considered both in their quantitative relations and in their sequencing. When, in the study of a given unit of material, should we arouse and when should we instruct through the application of systematic data?

In the following pages I shall argue that in teaching about Latin America, the most successful approach is that of mobilizing emotions first. I shall also define some important objectives which a teacher should pursue in dealing with the people and nations of that world area. Finally a series of potentially fruitful problems with accompanying materials will be outlined.

LIMITATIONS OF KNOWLEDGE

How much can a teacher know about Latin America? This question in a way is a violation of taboos which are part of our defenses. Obviously no one can know everything about Latin America. No one can know everything about Latin American fine art, or literature; perhaps it is even true that no one can know everything about Mexican art or Columbian literature. Thus

we all command an understanding of Latin America in degrees.

Lewis Hanke, for example, knows much more about Latin American history than I do. I in turn know more than a student in my course, and that student (I hope) knows more than someone who has never read a book or studied about the area's history. The four of us can easily be ranked from superior to inferior on a hierarchy labeled "Amount of Knowledge About Latin American History."

A second limitation of knowledge is found by looking at the dynamics of time. If I never again looked at information about Latin America, my fictitious student in the above example could easily "know" more than I in, say, ten years.

The taboo that we often live under is that we must not admit publicly that we don't know all there is about our subject. After all, it is my responsibility as a "Latin America expert" to know. Knowing and feeling, in the face of the overabundance of facts, begin to overlap, and soon we are answering questions about Latin America on the basis of what we feel as well as what we know.

This dilemma grows. In 1900 one could teach about Latin America without having to consider the implications of the Mexican Revolution of 1910, the rise of Peronism in Argentina, Communist Cuba, much of the archaeological literature on Pre-Columbian civilizations, etc. I suspect that this is a year in which more books, articles, news stories, television broadcasts, conferences, workshops, movies, slides, maps, tapes of some direct relevance to Latin America will become available, than were available in all of the 19th century. Yet today it is still the individual instructor who theoretically is responsible for familiarizing him or herself with all that material.

The radical solution to the problem is a departure from traditional "responsible" instruction and the adoption of what might be called Ideologies of Knowledge. In The Greening of America[1] we find one such possibility. By framing behavior into states of "consciousness," the author provides one with stereotype containers into which people, groups, events, societies can be placed. Consciousness III is the ideal, harmonious, brotherly and love-dominated state in which coercive organisms and oppressive relations will flow away and man and society be happy. Frequently a student in class will avoid a specific question, let's say, about the new Marxist government in Chile, by saying something like, "It should be looked at in the context of whether the society can achieve consciousness and whether inter-personal relations will transcend the material inequities which the class system in Chile causes. In other words, will the Chilean people find Consciousness III?"

Why does this sort of framework appeal to some people? In my opinion the fundamental reason for a flight to symbolic, ideological frameworks is to escape the complexity of the empirically "real" material being studied. The person suddenly faced with the necessity of "learning something about Chile" cannot come to grips with the vast quantity of material that is available to him. The solution is therefore to find security in something which he "knows something about." The individual can explain almost any phenomenon in terms of a framework with which he feels at ease.

The problems of the limitation of knowledge are intertwined with the whole process of learning itself. I ask myself, "Why don't these kids

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[1]Reich, Charles A. (New York: Random House, 1970)

know anything about Latin America after twelve years of school?" This question is not intended to reflect upon the quality of teaching, because I know that students are being taught about Latin America. It is intended instead to reflect upon the process of learning. The fact is that at successive levels in the educational system we cannot easily make assumptions that the student will know anything about Latin America. I cannot assume (a first-day-in-class map test has confirmed that both in New York and in Iowa) that college students will know more than, on the average, three to six of the twenty-plus countries of the southern part of this hemisphere when they are asked to locate them on a map. The question, "Why is this so?" must be answered by others.

Let me now suggest what behavioral objectives are the most fruitful and urgent ones to pursue, and finally map out some specific questions which could serve as the framework for course units. I hope to suggest a framework in which we can overcome some of the critical limitations of knowledge, and in which we can reconcile the affective and objective realities of teaching and thus avoid "ideologies of knowledge."

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

Under the rather constant daily pressures of teaching, one rarely has the opportunity to ask, "Why am I teaching what I am? What should it accomplish? Is it of any consequence?" Teaching about Latin America might be relevant simply as a necessary part of everyone's broad, educational experience. What we must determine therefore is what sorts of objectives are <u>specifically</u> and <u>profoundly</u> important about Latin America.

Two frameworks which have served me loyally as guidelines in constructing courses with some meaningful objectives are, first to divide my entities into <u>analytical</u>, <u>comparative</u> and <u>conceptual</u> perspectives, and

second, to demand that we look at anything we see from a functional point of view.

The fact that housing, education, health and nutritional standards in Latin America are much lower than those in the United States is a vitally important part of Latin America's reality. However, if the understanding of living conditions is not placed in a comparative perspective, very serious problems can arise. The student may come away with the conclusion that the United States is "superior" and that Latin America is "inferior." If Latin America is placed in the context of "developing nations" and if an analysis can be made in which the student comes to understand that today's modern countries at one time in their growth were also "developing" nations, then a more accurate understanding can be achieved. A discussion of violence in Latin American life is incomplete without demanding a consideration by the class of the American Civil War, of urban violence, of crime, and the law-and-order question in the United States. Thus you might consider in class, "Why do societies and men behave violently?" or, "What is the proper way to judge a nation's standard of living?" rather than, "Why are Latin Americans so violent?" or, "Why is the standard of living in Latin America so low?"

This may be hard to accept for some who believe that in a unit about Latin America one should "stick to the subject." I find that more is learned in comparing cross-culturally and using Latin American cases as examples, than is learned in the exclusive description of the area alone.

The functional point of reference which I recommend is this: Define what you are talking about by considering the social, historical, artistic, cultural, economic, or whatever else kind of environment it exists in.

Let me illustrate this point. You see a picture of a hut made out of bamboo poles, supporting a floor made out of slats of wood one-half inch apart, topped by a palm leaf roof with a tiny opening for a door and no windows. One conclusion that can be reached is that this is a hut belonging to a poor family which would be much better off living in a brick or cinder block house with a concrete or tile floor and a tin roof, with big airy windows and a large door.

The functional reality of this dwelling, however, is as follows: It belongs to a poor peasant on San Blas Island off the coast of Panama. It is built up on poles because of occasional floods which sweep through during severe tropical storms. It has a slatted floor because the children run naked and the babies' urine can simply run off through the floor. One corner of the hut is the kitchen; the straw roof permits the smoke from the charcoal fire to escape and also creates a draft for the fire. There are no windows to let in the sun, so the dwelling is cool during the day. Moreover, everyone lives outside during the day, and the family rises before the sun every morning, so that they could never really make use of sunlight in their hut.

Their house is very functional. A modern cinder block house such as that described above would completely upset the ecology of the family. The house is not the cause of their particular traditional way of life. Changing it would be no improvement, but instead would exert great hardships on them.

Showing and discussing this picture have produced miraculous results for me. Students who began the discussion feeling contempt or at least great sorrow for the poor "housing conditions" of these people, suddenly saw that here was a family which had great skill and intelligence.

These people over several generations had analyzed their resources, their lifestyle, the realities of the climatic environment in which they live, and had "designed" a dwelling which in the best possible way fulfilled their reality. It is a very reassuring thing to discover that human intelligence, resourcefulness and efficacy can come from within a man. It does not require a foreign technical expert. I use the word discover deliberately. From picture to the conclusion about the house and family, the student feels that he has reached an important understanding of an interesting problem.

Whenever we expose students to foreign cultures, we must break down the uni-cultural perspective which most unavoidably have. We must give dignity to the foreign reality. We must permit the student to see that visible "foreignness" is real. It is dysfunctional to press relentlessly on the theme: "All people are alike; we are really very much like the Latin Americans." For if the student comes to accept this at face value, then those things about the area which are visibly, statistically, emotionally different can only be judged by him as being rather crude, imperfect, bad imitations of the North American reality. And in the last analysis the Latin Americans themselves are beginning to assert their distinctiveness.

How can the behavioral objectives be realized most efficiently? I suggest that you mobilize emotion before you demand that the student (a) realize the import of any given problem you identify as interesting about Latin America, (b) devote any amount of time to reading about an area and peoples which may seem totally removed from his experiences or (c) be willing to participate in any discussion or give you feedback on what he is studying.

For example a good film which sets out a problem or describes something moving has invaluable pedagogical effect in studying foreign areas. It provides instantly and universally shared information among all the participants in a class. It makes everyone feel he is intellectually competent to enter into a dialogue about the subject. Moreover it gives the teacher the opportunity of receding somewhat, of becoming less the center of attention and the source of information; it allows the film to serve as the point of reference.

I have referred to this affect-based approach to teaching about Latin America as a "centrifugal learning process." Because from the commonly shared experience of the film (filmstrips, slides, pictures, tapes, "culture kits" are also good substitutes if no film is available) materials can be separated out which relate to the shared experience (the axis) and which therefore, no matter how complicated they are, inspire some confidence in the student.

The three parts look like this:

A. AFFECTIVE-MOBILIZATION: Media-centered experience. Provides group self-confidence in subject. Is the easiest access point to the students' interest. May take advantage of the students' most highly-developed learning skill-audio-visual learning. Permits the teacher to play a less dominant role, thus encouraging student initiative.

B. EMPIRICAL-FACT FINDING: Readings and charts, maps, artifacts or even further media (slides, pictures) are used to build the level of knowledge about the subject. The relationship between the media and the empirical phase can be one of three things: <u>Confirming</u> the validity and accuracy of the media information; <u>denying</u> the validity of the initial,

emotional experience (this is effective with Cuban propaganda films that depict a highly-distorted picture of reality, and also with several U. S. military films describing American military assistance to Latin America); juxtaposing the emotional picture with the more complex world of the whole subject seen in a larger context (for example a film of slum conditions in Rio which creates great emotional involvement, juxtaposed to the fact that urbanization and terrible urban problems have an almost universal applicability).

C. CROSS-CULTURAL TEAM RESEARCH: Groups of students take responsibility for preparing a presentation in which one limited aspect of the matter under investigation is looked at from the perspective of how it applies to other cultures. This is especially effective in courses the scope of which includes more than Latin America. It helps tie in diverse regions and more than anything reinforces the fact that "cultures" have both similar and unique features. The role of the student in making comparisons is to suggest where the similarities and differences are to be found. Naturally the idea of team research presentations creates a sense of participation and importance--and in a more personal manner than the media experience, gives the individual a sense of efficacy. He knows about something (if he has done his work) which the rest of the group knows less about.

D. REAGGREGATION: If possible the group should "put it all together," as the current slang has it. They may reassess the meaning of the original material experienced, examine how facts have changed the group's understanding of "the truth," how

> emotions help or hinder in understanding reality, and discover the place which that particular material, and thus Latin America in that perspective, has in a world of nations and peoples.

What can be accomplished through the "centrifugal approach" in teaching a number of units about Latin America? This approach lets you start with an appealing, "relevant" and current piece of material, and move out from that to discover the historical, cultural, political, artistic, sociological and other factors which have influenced it. Students will be actually wanting to dig back to the Spanish colonial period and even the pre-Columbian ancient Indian civilization of Peru if they have been emotionally touched by a film they saw on the life of the highland Indian in today's Peru.

In my experience historical remoteness creates an immediate obstacle in many students. "Who cares about the Incas in Peru 500 years ago?" But to see Indians chewing coca leaves to kill the hunger pain in their stomach, to watch them work like animals on semi-feudal estates, to be touched by a people who today this very moment are alive and doing the things we have seen them do--that is interesting. Thus the student will feel it's also worthwhile to find out why things are how they are, and it is in the past that the answers lie.

I suggest two integrated but distinct considerations to remember when planning units about Latin America. First, teach to affect blocks of intellectual matter--don't neglect emotion as a powerful ally in teaching. Determine for yourself what the proper combination of affective and empirical material must be, but keep in mind that if you arouse the emotion first you will have overcome inertia and gotten the student moving. Then

he will be easily steered to the more solid, "educational" material. Moreover, try to teach comparatively and try to teach fairly, giving the foreign culture the opportunity to show the students why it is as it is. Teach students to judge the functional perspective, to evaluate something in the time and space, location and traditions that it is in.

Second, use a "centrifugal" device to teach what you feel is most important about Latin America. The old dividing lines--Pre-Columbian Peoples, Spanish Conquest, Colonial Period, Independence, the Republican Period and Modern Problems and Prospects--are probably the most convenient way to carve up time. But teach about the area to explain the present. After all it is the present which is the most urgent; it is the present and future which delight, frighten, puzzle us. The past as interesting for its own sake requires a great deal of maturity, more than we can expect from impatient young people. And in a world still so far from accomplishing justice and reason, impatience is after all a virtue.

TEACHING UNIT SUGGESTIONS

Media: A Problem of Power Color film, 45 minutes, 16 mm color-sound. An excellent opening statement about conditions of urban and rural Colombia (as representative of all Latin America). Film Commission, National Council of Churches, 475 Riverside Drive, New York, N. Y.

Subjects: From the conditions and comments of people it seems that some sort of revolution is inevitable in Latin America. What kind of revolution might it be? How would we as a nation and as individuals react to it?

What were the differences between the lives of the people living in the city and in the country? What was the role of Father Garcia in their lives?

Readings: Oscar Lewis, Five Families (New York: New American Library,1959). An older book but a very readable and expertly done portrait of five Mexican families of different living standards and with interesting prospects for their future.

Projects: Find in your own town an equivalent to Father Garcia. What kinds of problems exist in your town? Is there a revolutionary potential in the U. S.? Why? Why not? What are conditions for revolution? Draw up a family monthly budget of $42 (average income of people in the film). What could you buy with it?

TEACHING UNIT SUGGESTIONS

Media: Flavio. A short black and white, 16 mm sound film depicting the life of a small boy living in a favela (squatter settlement) in Brazil. Contemporary Films, 828 Custer Avenue, Evanston, Illinois.

Subject: What is poverty? How do you know it when you see it? What do people have to have in order not to be considered poor? Are poor people lazy? Is poverty their own fault? Can they ever be anything but poor?

Readings: Carolina Maris de Jesus, Child of the Dark. (New York: Signet: New American Library, 1962). An accurate and moving description of life in a Brazilian slum, written in diary form by one of its inhabitants. Also Victor Alba, The Latin Americans (New York: Praeger, 1970) has excellent sections on standards of living for the entire continent written in a most interesting way.

Projects: For one week, prepare yourself a menu which approximates the diet of an inhabitant of a Brazilian slum. Discuss its effects on you--your moods, how you get along with others, your concentration, etc. Invite someone from the city planning office to speak about housing and poverty, urban renewal, the role of government in helping low income people. Compare this with the Brazilian case. Visit your town dump. Estimate what the waste you see would mean to a favela dweller. Would you mind living on or by the dump? What would you do if you had no choice?

CHAPTER XI

OBJECTIVES FOR A COURSE IN AMERICAN HISTORY FOR SLOW LEARNERS

By Judith deTunco

In studying groups of slow learners, one observes some of the same personality characteristics over and over again.[1] First of all, many slow learners have a very poor self concept. They think of themselves as "dumb." They say to each other, "This is the dumb class." They have very low self-esteem and therefore expect to fail.

Secondly, slow learners generally have a very poor attitude toward learning. The major problem for the teacher is to get their attention and then keep it. These students need to have physical things to do to get them involved. Slow learners have no sense of schooling being worth anything. They don't see it in any relationship to a future at all. It's just something they must endure until they are old enough to drop out.

The third characteristic one finds is that slow students have done very little in the way of value clarification. They don't seem to know what they value; they haven't given much thought to what their responsibilities or obligations are and they do very little thinking about the future.

The fourth characteristic is that they have poor study skills. They have not learned how to play the game of how to get ahead in the American public school. Slow students have weak language skills and are not as verbal as many other students. Initially they are not anxious to speak out

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[1] Edwin Fenton et.al., The New Social Studies for the Slow Learner: A Rationale For A Junior High School American History Course (New York: American Heritage Publishing Co., Inc., 1969), Chapter I.

because they don't think very much of themselves. These students expect they are going to be wrong.

Fifthly, many slow students have poor inquiry skills. They have great difficulty with abstractions and generalizations. They also have very little concept of time and place.

The sixth problem that one finds is that students who are classified as slow learners have very little content background. One cannot assume that they remember much from fifth grade or eighth grade.

However, slow learners can learn content and skills if what you are asking them to do is appropriate to both their abilities and their aspirations. But as the song says, they have to be taught. Many teachers have a degrading attitude about slow learners. Do you know the study called Pygmalion In The Classroom?[2] Researchers identified for teachers those students who might be most expected to achieve substantially in their classroom because of the student scores on achievement tests. Sure enough, at the end of the experiment, those children whom the researchers identified as being the highest potential achievers were those that had scored the highest on various types of tests. Then the researchers opened up Pandora's box and showed the teachers that the testing data did not bear out that those students who had achieved should have done so. The whole point of the experiment is to show the effect of teacher expectation. As long as we carry in our minds the attitude that these "slow" students are dumb and are worth nothing, that's exactly what we are going to get from them--nothing. I think the major problem is that everyone working with slow learners needs to remember that these students can learn if the materials are appropriate to the students' skills and abilities.

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[2]Lenore Jackson and Robert Rosenthal, Pygmalion In The Classroom (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968).

The staff of the Social Studies Curriculum Center at Carnegie-Mellon University, who developed The Americans, attempted to state the objectives of the course in behavioral terms so that both teachers and students could measure progress. A testing program is provided which measures the content and skill objectives.[3] It is recommended that an anecdotal record be kept to measure affective objectives.

The following are some of the behavioral objectives in the area of attitude toward learning:[4]

1. Student should be willing to listen in class, shown by:
    a. Not making a disturbance when others are speaking
    b. Paying attention to the teacher rather than doodling, day-dreaming or interrupting
    c. Asking questions for clarification
    d. Attending class more regularly than in the past and with increasing regularity as the school year progresses.
2. The student should be willing to participate in the work of the course, shown by:
    a. Bringing notebook and pencil to class
    b. Answering questions when called upon
    c. Doing written work in class
    d. Working constructively in small groups without the constant supervision of the teacher.

The second area and the most important one, in my judgment of objectives, deals with attitudes toward oneself. Some of these objectives

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[3]Edwin Fenton et al., The Americans: Tests (New York: American Heritage Publishing Co., Inc., 1970).

[4]Fenton, Rationale, 26-27.

are:[5]

At the end of the course, the student should have demonstrated progress toward the development of the following self-image:

1. I'm not so dumb.
2. I'm able to learn independently.
3. I can make decisions myself.
4. I know what I can and what I can't do.
5. I belong to: home, neighborhood, school, community, country.

I feel very strongly that in working with students who have not achieved in school that it really doesn't matter whether or not they are able to list the Presidents of the United States or the three provisions of the Missouri Compromise. Isn't it more essential that students walk out of your class feeling like decent human beings? A course which stresses self-image goals gives the students self confidence.

A third area of affective objectives deals with clarification of values:[6]

By the end of the course, each student should have clarified his ideas about the following issues:

1. What is the nature of the good man?
    a. What is the good man's obligation to himself?
    b. What is the good man's obligation to his family?
    c. What is the good man's obligation to his friends?
    d. What is the good man's obligation to his community?
    e. What is the good man's obligation to his nation?
2. What is the good life?
    a. What role does work play in the good life?

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[5]Fenton, Rationale, 27.

[6]Fenton, Rationale, 28.

b. What are appropriate ways to spend leisure time?

c. What role should involvement in the family and the community play in the good life?

3. What is the good society?

a. What sort of political system best enables the good man to lead the good life?

b. What sort of economic system best enables the good man to lead the good life?

c. What sort of social structure best enables the good man to lead the good life?

As I travel the United States I see a lot of teachers attempting to impose values on students. Value clarification is very different. We want students to know what they believe, to know why they believe what they believe and to be able to articulate it in a reasonable manner.[7] One of the problems with value clarification is that many teachers tend to give the students too much data on an issue before asking them to clarify. The Americans provides limited data in stating the problem. If one gives students two or three pages to read and then asks what the issue is, one finds that one has lost the students on the first paragraph. I also find it works much better to talk about one side of an issue rather thoroughly and then go to the point of view of the other side. If students try to talk about two conflicting points of view at one time, many will simply say: "If those two people can't decide, who am I to try to do so?" A useful technique in really getting students to clarify their own values

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[7]For an example of value clarification in action see Edwin Fenton et al., The Americans:A History of The United States (New York: American Heritage Publishing Co., Inc., 1970), 77-81.

is to use the analogy process. Analogies do not necessarily have to be true cases but analogies do help students think through alternatives to their positions. Another area of objectives that is stressed in The Americans is study skills:[8]

1. Reading.
   a. Prose passages.
      1) Can sound out and pronounce new words.
      2) Can determine the meaning of new words from context, from written definitions, or by matching words to pictures.
      3) Can discriminate between the main ideas and subordinate details in paragraphs or in longer prose passages.
2. Maps.
   Can gather information from a map by using scales, symbols, projections and similar tools.
3. Tables, graphs, charts.
   a. Can gather information from tables, charts and graphs when cued by questions.
   b. Can convert from one form of tabular or graphic representation to another by following specific directions.
4. Listening.
   a. Can follow directions given orally by the teacher.
   b. Can gather data from a recording when guided by study questions.
   c. Can gather data from teachers' and students' oral presentations.

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[8]Fenton, Rationale, 29.

5. Viewing.
   a. Can describe accurately what is portrayed in a single still photograph.
   b. Can classify photographs by subject.
   c. Can discriminate between relevant and irrelevant visual evidence.
   d. Can make a verbal generalization from visual evidence in filmstrips or collections of pictures.
6. Writing.
   a. Can fill in blanks and make free-response answers to questions in a workbook.
   b. Can write appropriate responses to several types of multiple choice questions.
   c. Can write a short paragraph consisting of a topic sentence and several short sentences containing evidence.
7. Speaking.
   a. Can pronounce selected social studies terms correctly.
   b. Can participate in class discussions or skits.
   c. Can present oral reports to the class.

Content coverage is not essential, in my opinion, in working with slower students. When selecting content though it is useful to keep the following objectives in mind:[9]

1. Content should enable the student to describe ways in which some people in American history had problems and hopes similar to his own.

2. Content should make the student personally involved in contemporary problems so he can discuss problems of the present in light of the past.

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[9]Fenton, Rationale, 31.

3. Content should produce a person who can operate as an intelligent citizen, who is able to list rights, privileges and responsibilities that he has in this democracy .....

In working with slow learners, I am not proposing we offer watered-down American history courses as they are taught in many schools. The staff of the Social Studies Curriculum Center developed a course that is relevant to the student. For example, the first concept introduced in The Americans is the unknown. Students are asked how they would feel about moving into a new neighborhood and are encouraged to discuss their feelings about a variety of unknown situations. Then students are asked to think about how Columbus or the men on his ship must have felt when faced with the similar problem of the unknown. The Americans relates to students with the introduction of some big universal ideas.

In regard to methodology, many of us have found that slower students can be taught to use the inquiry process. Inquiry appeals to many slower students because when a class is presented with a visual or oral piece of data there can be a variety of hypotheses proposed. Therefore, the risk of failure is much less than in a conventional right and wrong answer situation.

Here is how the inquiry process might go with a class or slow learners.[10] I would ask them whether any of them have moved lately. I would ask those who have to describe the circumstances and reasons for their move, listing on the board some of the problems their families encountered in moving. Secondly, I would show the class a number of untitled pictures in the form of a filmstrip illustrating various people moving west in America in the 1840's and 1850's. I would ask the students to hypothesize

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[10]Fento The Americans 144-150 for materials to use with students.

about the problems these historical people encountered in each picture. The students will see many different problems in each picture. The teacher must remember that he or she does not know the "right" answer either. The students' responses should be written on the board so the class can observe them. The next step would be to get the students to classify the pictures because many of our hypotheses may be overlapping. I ask students to suggest some categories under which we might place several of the hypotheses. I do not impose categories on students. One of the skills of a thinker is the ability to categorize so he will not be overwhelmed with data. Students need to be taught to do it and they need to have experience in doing it. It is not useful for the teacher to provide the categories and then have students place hypotheses under the various categories. At this point, students need to begin to support or refute their hypotheses. The teacher presents evidence in the form of both primary and secondary sources and asks students to discuss the ways in which each source supports or refutes the hypotheses. I have found that primary sources work beautifully with slow learners if the reading problem is conquered. In many cases, it may be necessary to fictionalize the primary sources. This does not mean changing the meaning of the source but simply writing the source in story form and removing some of the more difficult words. Some teachers have also had great success with simply telling a primary source in the form of a story. This type of inquiry is not pure inquiry because pure inquiry implies that students would form hypotheses and then search through primary and secondary sources to support or refute their hypotheses. This is a modified form of inquiry and the students and teachers need to understand that it is not "pure." After the class has examined the three pieces of data and the students have decided which of the hypotheses are most valid I ask the students to generalize. "We have talked about the problems your families have had in moving

and we have talked about the problems people had in moving in the 1800's. Can you make any general statements about the problems people have in moving no matter what the period of time?" Obviously, this is the main content goal of this lesson. I am not concerned that the student should be able to list ten problems people had in moving west but rather that he have in mind some major problems that are general to moving. Later on in the course, we might ask the students to test their generalizations based on the immigrants' experiences. The purpose of inquiry is for students to take data and get it down into some meaningful big ideas, so that they are seeing the whole forest instead of getting lost in all the trees.

The Americans provides several resources. There is a student text filled with primary and secondary sources divided into fifteen to twenty minute segments. Slow learners have short attention spans and need to have the pace varied frequently. The program provides a workbook with a variety of activities. The first questions are very easy ones that any student can answer. The purpose here is to provide immediate gratification to the student because he, too, can succeed. The second and third kinds of activities are harder kinds of thinking than immediate recall. Often bonus exercises are provided. The workbook helps in class discussion because many slower students tend to be less verbal and if they have written something out they are much more willing to read to you what they have written rather than taking a chance on speaking spontaneously. There is also an extremely detailed testing program which tests listening skills, reading skills, paragraph writing, inquiry skills and content. The Americans has a detailed rationale and teacher's guide to provide suggestions for the teacher. In addition, much of the data is provided in an A-V kit which contains picture cards, filmstrips and cassette tapes because many students who have learning

difficulties need to learn to deal with data in forms other than the printed page.[11]

In conclusion, the most important objective of The Americans is to teach students how to think. Secondly, in the area of values, The Americans strives to teach value clarification and to improve the student's self image. Thirdly, The Americans teaches content about the American past and also the skills necessary to succeed in school.

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[12]For further information on The Americans, contact your local Holt, Rinehart and Winston representative.

CHAPTER XII

AMERICAN POLITICAL BEHAVIOR: A NEW APPROACH TO CIVIC EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS*

By John J. Patrick

The High School Curriculum Center in Government at Indiana University was established in 1966 to develop an alternative to widely-used secondary school civics courses. During the first year of the project several basic weaknesses in civics instruction, which could be remedied through development of improved instructional materials, were identified.

The Need For Reform of Civics Courses

A major defect in civics courses has been the inadequate content of standard civics instruction. Recent studies of widely-used instructional materials have revealed an enormous gap between the subject matter of civics courses and knowledge about politics produced by social scientists during the past two decades. An explosive development of knowledge and techniques of inquiry has marked the work of social scientists interested in political phenomena. Yet most students have continued to study about politics as their parents did. Thus, the picture of politics and government presented in secondary school classrooms tends to bear little resemblance to the world of the politician or of the political scientist.

Civics courses have been devoid of the perspectives of modern political science. They have tended to stress legalistic descriptions of governmental institutions and ethical prescriptions about political behavior.

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*The Co-authors of "American Political Behavior" are Howard D. Mehlinger and John J. Patrick of the High School Curriculum Center in Government at Indiana University. The publisher is Ginn and Company of Boston.

Political processes have been described as some people would wish them to be rather than as they are, thereby confusing factual and value judgments. The socio-cultural foundations of political behavior, the extra-legal factors that influence public policy decisions and the functioning of government, have been ignored. Value conflicts and processes of conflict resolution -- the controversies, competitions, and compromises that are basic to political activity -- have been omitted or treated superficially.

There has been little effort in civic education to develop critical thinking skills and inquiry skills. Students have been urged to be critical thinkers and probing inquirers, but the standard textbooks have provided meager instruction about how to think critically and to establish warrants for propositions about political behavior. Widely used textbooks, while exhorting students to make rational political decisions, appear to have been fostering a mind-deadening "readregurgitate" pedagogical style. End-of-chapter questions and suggested activities that have appeared in standard testbooks have emphasized rote learning of discrete facts about governmental institutions. In addition, some textbooks have urged students to engage in sublime normative discussion while neglecting to prepare them to cope successfully with the rigors of value analysis.

Formal instruction in civics and government has had little impact upon learners. Civic educators have aimed at teaching democratic political beliefs and knowledge of governmental structures and political affairs. But numerous studies have demonstrated the impotence of formal civics instruction to impart knowledge or influence beliefs. For example, a recent study by Kenneth Langton and M. Kent Jennings, of a national probability sample of twelfth-graders, found only minuscule changes in political attitudes and sophistication as a result of formal civics instruction. The National Assessment in Citizenship Education, conducted by the Education Commission

of the States, is the most recent of several nation-wide surveys which have documented the ignorance of Americans about the structure and functions of government and the strategies of effective political activity.

The picture of political life that has been conveyed through standard instructional materials is like a poorly constructed map. Like a poor map, which may lead a traveler astray, the picture of political life projected via widely used texts may mislead students who use it as a guide to the political world.

Goals and Objectives of "American Political Behavior"

The major goals and objectives of "American Political Behavior" have been selected in response to the defects of civics instruction discussed above. The goals are indicative of the orientation of instruction. Among the most important of these goals are:

1. increasing capability to meaningfully perceive politically relevant experiences;
2. developing capability to organize and interpret information;
3. developing ability to determine the grounds for confirmation or rejection of propositions about politics;
4. developing capability to formulate and use concepts, descriptions, and explanations about political behavior;
5. developing ability to rationally consider value claims and to make reasoned value judgments;
6. influencing students to value scientific approaches to the verification of factual claims and rational analysis of value claims;
7. increasing capability to assess the likely costs and rewards of particular types of political activities;
8. reinforcing democratic political beliefs such as respect for the rights of individuals, support for majority-rule practices, acceptance of civic responsibility, etc.

In support of overriding instructional goals, such as those stated above, specific instructional objectives have been stated for each lesson. These instructional objectives indicate what the learner is able to do as a result of instruction. They indicate the kind of instruction necessary to provide learners with capabilities specified in the objectives.

Following are six examples of precise instructional objectives for different lessons in the "American Political Behavior" course.

1. Students are able to construct a contingency table from raw data.
2. Students are able to state empirically testable hypotheses.
3. Students can infer from data on pages 000-000 that individuals with higher socioeconomic status tend to be more active in political affairs than individuals with lower socioeconomic status.
4. Students can combine the following variables to construct explanations for the voter turnout rate of different types of people: a) sense of civic duty; b) political interest; c) concern with election outcome; and d) sense of political efficacy.
5. Students can distinguish factual judgments from value judgments in The Pleasant Valley Case.
6. Students can make evaluations of the political behavior of the major participants in The Pleasant Valley Case. They are able to explain, by reference to their own values, why they made these evaluations.

These instructional objectives are pointed and detailed. They leave little doubt about what students are expected to do to indicate that they have acquired a particular ability, to indicate that mastery learning has occurred. Instructional objectives are provided with each lesson plan in the "Teacher's Guide to American Political Behavior." Teachers are able to know precisely the purposes of every lesson and how to teach to accomplish them.

At the end of instructional sequences, roughly every two to three weeks, teachers are instructed to administer an examination designed to measure attainment of the instructional objectives most recently taught. The examination items reflect the instructional objectives; they are criterion

measures of the objectives. Successful performance on the examination suggests mastery of the instructional objectives reflected by the exam.

The instructional objectives of "American Political Behavior" indicate that instruction is aimed at teaching particular knowledge, skills, and thought processes. Notice that the examples of instructional objectives presented above refer to several different skills of inquiry and critical thinking and to various thinking processes such as memory, comprehension, interpretation, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The complete set of instructional objectives, stated in the "Teacher's Guide to American Political Behavior" are indicators of subject matter, lesson sequencing, and instructional techniques.

Selection and Organization of Subject Matter

The subject matter of the "American Political Behavior" course has been selected and organized to overcome basic inadequacies of the content of typical civics courses, to narrow the knowledge gap and conceptual lag that has severely afflicted secondary school civics instruction. In "American Political Behavior," the relationships of social factors to political behavior are emphasized. Students are required to study the political process in terms of several basic social science concepts, such as political culture, political socialization, social class, status, and role. The relationships between these concepts are stressed, so that students learn how to construct and apply conceptual frameworks to the organization and interpretation of information. Controversial topics, such as the political aspects of race relations or the relationship of social class to political behavior, permeate the course. However, these topics are included as subjects for analysis, not as exercises in iconoclasm.

Following are the five major units of instruction which comprise the American Political Behavior course.

1. Introduction to the Study of Political Behavior. In this unit students are introduced to the meaning of political behavior, to the social science approach to the study of politics, and to the process of making value judgments and policy decisions about political affairs.

2. Similarities and Differences in Political Behavior. In this unit students learn about the relationship of social factors to political attitudes and political behavior. Basic concepts are introduced such as role, socioeconomic status, culture, socialization, and personality. This unit includes material about the political behavior of ethnic groups.

3. Elections and Voting Behavior. This unit focuses on the relationship of various social and psychological factors to voting behavior. Other topics are the formal and informal rules that direct the election process in our society, the differences between the major political parties, and the consequences of voting behavior.

4. Political Decision-Makers. In this unit students learn about the political roles of four types of public officials in the national government: the President, congressmen, bureaucrats, and judges. The rights and duties of each role type, the recruitment of individuals to the role, and the decision-making activities of the role occupant are emphasized.

5. Unofficial Political Specialists. In this unit students learn about individuals who influence public policy decisions, but who do not hold formal positions in the government. Four types of unofficial political leaders are studied: the interest group leader, the news commentator, the expert-consultant, and the political party leader.

A textbook, a package of worksheets, a packet of transparencies, a booklet of simulations, and a board game package are the vehicles for presenting the subject matter. The textbook is packaged in two ways: 1) as a single hardcover text, for those wishing to use the entire course, and 2) as two paperbacks, for those wishing to use either the first half or the second half of the course. The first paperback text includes Units One, Two, and Three. The second paperback text includes Units Four and Five.

The textbook is not typical. The book is permeated with exercises and problems. Thus, after reading a few pages of the text, students are required to use what they have read to complete an exercise or solve a problem. Numerous cases are presented to illustrate various aspects of

political behavior and to provide raw material for analysis.

The worksheet package consists of a series of ditto-masters from which class sets of materials can be made. The worksheet lessons involve the generation and management of data. Exercises in table reading, table building, graph reading, and graph construction are presented via worksheets. Through the worksheets survey research activities are presented and structured.

Several lessons in the course are built around the use of transparencies. Some of these lessons are concerned with the generation, organization, and interpretation of data. Others are for the purpose of raising questions, provoking speculation, or prompting insights.

Two simulations are presented in a booklet. One requires students to play roles of voters, candidates, and campaigners in a city election. The other simulation requires students to play the roles of public officials concerned with particular policy questions and community influentials who desire to influence public policy decisions.

The course includes two board games. One game is about the legislative process, the means by which a bill becomes a law. The other game is about the recruitment of associate justices to the U.S. Supreme Court.

Instructional Techniques

The lessons in the "American Political Behavior" course have been planned to prepare students to apply skills, ideas, and information. Over and over again students must demonstrate ability to use particular ideas, skills, and information to complete an exercise or solve a problem. Teaching strategies are planned to develop skills of critical thinking and inquiry.

Different instructional techniques and types of lessons are employed in the course. The instructional objectives for a particular lesson, or set of lessons, are guides to lesson design and teaching strategy. Different

types of instruction are employed to achieve different types of instructional objectives. For example, the use of a written instructional program, which provides precise step-by-step direction, is a very efficient way to teach a skill such as how to read contingency tables. In contrast, student role playing and interaction within the context of a systematically designed simulation activity is an appropriate way to develop ability to devise fruitful political strategies.

Lesson sequencing and teacher strategies of "American Political Behavior" are organized to help students develop and test their own hypotheses and to critically judge the hypotheses of others. Each new topic is introduced through an activity that requires students to speculate freely and then to formulate hypotheses about the topic. Next, students are required to reassess and modify hypotheses in the light of additional information and new ways of organizing information. The next step involves student applications of modified ideas to new situations. Students complete the study of a topic with a lesson that requires them to make value judgments about the topic. Students are called upon continually to classify and interpret information in terms of the social science concepts that structure the course. Case studies are used extensively as the basis for student analysis of political behavior. In addition, students are required to engage in simulation, games, role playing, and political attitude survey activities.

Four basic categories of instruction are used in the course. They are labeled: 1) confrontation, 2) rule-example, 3) application, and 4) value judgment. Each category of instruction has been devised for different purposes and requires different instructional techniques. The following diagram indicates the differences between the four categories.

Categories of Instruction

I.	Confrontation	A. Focus Attention B. Motivate C. Generate Speculations and/or Hypotheses
II.	Rule-Example	A. Systematically Develop Ideas and/or Skills B. Test Hypotheses
III.	Application	A. Require use of ideas, information, and skills presented previously B. Provide clues about the extent to which instructional objectives have been attained
IV.	Value Judgment-Policy Decision	A. Relate evaluational questions to an empirical context B. Require reasoned value judgment

Confrontation lessons initiate study of a particular topic such as participation in public elections. The role of the teacher is to conduct open-ended discussion. The teacher is supposed to provoke students to respond to stimuli presented in the lesson and to provide cues to sustain discussion. The teacher is to refrain from judging student responses, since the point of this type of lesson is to generate speculation, to raise questions, and to provoke inquiry. When teaching a confrontation lesson, the teacher is primarily a discussion manager, rather than a giver of answers or a judger of student responses.

In-class attitude surveys, case studies, student reaction to pictures of symbols, and provocative questions and contrasting points of view are among the kinds of lessons employed in the confrontation category of instruction. For example, four brief cases are used to initiate student consideration of the following two questions: 1) What is political behavior? and 2) Why do people behave politically? In another part of the course contrasting arguments about the meaning of loyalty and patriotism are used to provoke student consideration of questions about the origins and consequences of political

beliefs about patriotism and the right to dissent. In another part of the course, the confrontation lesson consists of soliciting student speculation about the relative tendencies of different groups to participate in public elections. A set of transparencies, conveying pictorial representations of different social groups, is used to stimulate student reaction.

Rule-example lessons provide the bases for systematic consideration of a topic initiated through the confrontation lessons. The teacher role in the rule-example category of instruction is to assist student mastery of particular skills, ideas, and information. The teacher is expected to help students make judgments about their responses to questions and exercises.

Teacher demonstrations, programmed instructional materials, written exposition enriched with examples and exercises, and data processing and analysis activities are among the kinds of lessons employed in the rule-example category of instruction. For example, an instructional program is used to teach students how to construct contingency tables. In another part of the course, written exposition enriched with examples and exercises is used to teach the meanings of aspects of political behavior such as issue, influence, political resources, and policy decisions. In this lesson rules, or criteria, for determining instances or non-instances of issue, influence, political resource, and policy decision are specified. Examples of instances and non-instances of each of these terms are presented. And then students are required to use these terms to classify fresh information. In other parts of the course, the rule-example lesson requires students to infer generalizations, or rules, from statistical data. For example, a particular lesson about voter behavior requires students to infer propositions relating voter choices and several social variables from statistical evidence.

The application category of instruction involves student use of information, ideas, and skills in a novel situation. Through application lessons students are provided an opportunity to indicate mastery of instructional objectives. Students who demonstrate mastery of application lessons provide evidence of particular capabilities. If these capabilities were not present prior to instruction, then one can assume that mastery of application lessons demonstrates learning. Inability to master application lessons indicates deficiency in terms of particular instructional objectives. Careful appraisal of inadequate student performance may provide clues about student incapacity that can be overcome through remedial instruction.

The teacher role during the application stage of instruction is to help students assess the extent of their learning, to help students to determine whether they have attained particular instructional objectives. Teachers should give special attention to students who cannot demonstrate mastery.

Case study analysis, classification exercises, data processing and interpreting problems, simulation activities, and games are types of application lessons. For example, throughout the course students are required to apply conceptual frameworks to the analysis of case studies of political behavior. In a certain part of the course, students are required to apply knowledge of voter behavior and public elections to the successful performance of roles in a simulation activity. Another application lesson requires students to process data and make inferences from the data about variations in sense of political efficacy.

The value judgment category of instruction provides an opportunity to relate particular descriptions and explanations to value judgments. Through these lessons, students have the chance to relate their studies of what is, and what has been, to consideration of questions about what ought

to be.

The teacher role is to conduct open-ended discussions, to provoke student responses, and to influence students to engage in rat onal consideration of value claims. Rational consideration of value claims means assessing consequences of particular value judgments and determining consistency between preferred means and valued ends.

Through lessons requiring value judgments and policy decisions students are taught to distinguish factual judgments from value judgments. They are also taught that fruitful value judgments depend upon competent factual judgments, that reasoned value judgments stem from careful consideration of what is and what might be.

In the "American Political Behavior" course students are required to make value judgments about the outcomes of case studies of political behavior. They are required to make value judgments and policy decisions when playing roles in simulation activities. They are required to make value judgments about alternative political strategies and techniques, about alternative political beliefs, and about alternative policies.

The Potential Payoff of "American Political Behavior"

"American Political Behavior" has undergone two rounds of field testing. During the 1968-69 school year, the course was piloted in forty schools with eighth- and ninth-graders in different sections of the country. "Feedback" from this trial resulted in a revised version of the course which was piloted in over fifty schools, with mostly eighth- and ninth-graders, during the 1969-70 school year. Several twelfth-grade classes used the materials during this second field trial. Criticisms derived from this second round of field testing led to a second revision of the course, which Ginn and Company of Boston is publishing.

Evaluation of the course reveals that it is viable with students who can read at roughly a ninth-grade level of difficulty. "American Political Behavior" is not appropriate for "slow learning" ninth-graders who have severe reading problems. "American Political Behavior" seems to be a viable twelfth-grade course, since the subject matter and the approach is fresh. Presumably, capable twelfth-graders will be able to move through the course more rapidly than most younger students.

What is the potential payoff of "American Political Behavior?" What might be the impact of applying conceptual frameworks from social science to the study of politics in secondary schools? Certain answers to these questions are not available. However, two years of field trials involving several hundred students have yielded some tentative beliefs about the worth of "American Political Behavior." It does appear that conceptual frameworks from the social sciences can be productively applied to civics instruction. These frameworks do provide students with useful new perspectives for viewing political affairs. Presumably these conceptual frameworks can help students to understand and to cope more effectively with the social forces that influence their political beliefs and actions.

CHAPTER XIII

LAW AND SOCIETY -- PILOT PROJECT
By Kamilla M. Mazanec

I. HISTORY

The Law and Society Project began in the summer of 1969 under a grant from the Iowa Crime Commission, funded through the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. Materials were prepared for use as a teacher's manual in a high school course designed to instill into high school students respect for the law through knowledge of the substantive law and of the legal system.

A further grant was made in the 1969-70 school year, with matching funds supplied by the Iowa State Bar Association. This grant covered preparation of student materials, presentation of a seminar to acquaint certain specified teachers with the materials and how to use them, and publication of the materials for use on an experimental basis in selected Des Moines public schools. This grant was intended to test whether the course and the materials in fact achieved the results hoped for and should be presented for incorporation into the curriculum of Iowa schools.

II. MATERIALS

Ten hypothetical fact situations, involving legal topics, were prepared under the original grant. Subjects covered included the Law of Torts; Automobile Torts; The Student and His School; Protest and Dissent; Student and Work; Love and Marriage; Divorce and Family Dissolution; Buying, Selling and Credit; Buying, Selling and Leasing; and Military Service. After the factual situation was presented in story form, a

series of questions was asked to illustrate the legal points involved. The teacher's manual and student's text are the same to this point.

The teacher's manual then contained a very extensive presentation of legal materials needed to answer the questions posed. The materials included complete copies of relevant statutes, and a few excerpts and many full reports of court opinions.

The student's text included a drastically-edited version of the legal materials in the teacher's manual. Case and statutory materials were usually limited to one paragraph quotes or paraphrases. Only a very few cases were presented in full; these included the Tinker case, probably the most significant recent case on school authority. In addition, the legal material was clearly arranged and numbered, so that the student could see how a legal conclusion on a new point is built upon previously established legal principles.

The approach of the materials -- i.e., a hypothetical fact situation followed by legal materials from which answers must be concluded -- is typical of law school teaching. It was hoped that this approach would generate student interest and that the high school student would achieve both a knowledge of the substantive law and an understanding of the legal system.

III. LAW AND SOCIETY COURSE

The materials were used as an eight-week unit in a required ninth grade government course at one Des Moines junior high school, and in the required twelfth grade government course at one high school. The materials were supplemented by materials of the individual teachers, by various speakers such as judges, and by other programs such as mock trials. One hundred thirteen students in the twelfth grade general track government class and thirty-three students in the ninth grade general track government

class participated.

For the most part, the selection of supplementary materials and supplementary speakers and programs was left to the individual teacher. However, the course was designed to utilize periodic visits of law students to answer student questions.

IV. TEACHER SEMINAR

In order to acquaint the teachers with the legal materials, and with how they were typically presented in a law school class, a one-week seminar was held. The materials were reviewed, teaching techniques were discussed, purposes of the course were enumerated, and various supplementary materials, speakers, and programs were considered.

V. ATTITUDE SURVEY

In order to determine whether the course did in fact change student attitudes towards the law, an attitude survey consisting of forty questions was administered at the end of the course to students who had completed the course, and also to control groups at each school who had not been part of the course instruction.

A basic hypothesis upon which the evaluation was based was that the experimental groups which were exposed to the special materials and teaching strategies would, in general, choose more of the preferred responses than would the control groups. Analysis of the results of the survey shows that such was the case in nearly all items included in the attitude survey.

Among the attitudes in which the experimental group showed significant change are the following:

2. Laws place more importance on property rights than on individual rights or human rights. Disagreed.

5.	The law provides as much protection for your rights as it does for the rights of others.	Agreed.
6.	A poor person will receive fair treatment in courts.	Agreed.
11.	When it comes right down to it, young people have few if any rights.	Disagreed.
13.	A parent should have a legal right to the services, control and custody of his child.	Agreed.
14.	Police protection is vitally necessary to an orderly society.	Agreed.
17.	Schools are poor places to apply the ideals of democracy.	Disagreed.
20.	If a student and his parents disapprove of the course, policies or teachers of a school, there is little that they can do about them.	Disagreed.

Significant increases in the percentage of students recording the preferred answer were evident at both schools.

VI. TEACHER EVALUATION

After the course was completed, an evaluation session was held with the teachers, the project director, and the social science supervisor of the school district.

A. Student Interest: Both teachers agreed that student interest in the course was very high, and that the stimulation of interest was justification alone for continuing the course. In fact, one teacher said that even though the material was above the level of his ninth grade students, it was the only material presented all year which attracted their attention.

B. Materials: It was agreed that the materials were best suited for the twelfth grade level, and were too far above the general ninth grade student. If the course is to be offered on the ninth grade level, a completely new set of materials, including some new and different subjects, should be prepared.

Some expansion of the materials is necessary in order to present a more complete picture of the law to the students. First, some materials should be available concerning how our legal system operates, and how the federal and state judicial systems are intertwined. But most important, at least two criminal law problems should be added. The students themselves felt the lack of criminal material, and the teachers believe it is necessary in order to present a contrast to the function of the civil law, which is so clearly presented in the materials now.

Some revision of the present materials is also necessary in order to bring them up to date. For example, a new divorce statute was adopted in Iowa after the materials had been printed, and several Supreme Court cases on the draft were decided after the materials had been finished. If this course and these materials are adopted on a state-wide basis, and are continuously offered in the school system, some method must be found to up-date the materials each year.

The teachers requested help in writing exams over the materials.

It was agreed that once the materials have been expanded to include some criminal law problems, they will be suitable for use in a "mini-course," a six to nine week unit presented during the government class in the twelfth grade.

C. Course: This course should be continued in the schools, on the twelfth grade level, the teachers felt, but it should be offered as an elective.

One of the highlights of the course from the students' viewpoints was the resource personnel brought into the classroom, and the program and field trips arranged by the teachers. Mock trials were held at both schools. Field trips included a visit to a court. Judges, lawyers, policemen, and other interested persons spoke to the classes. At the high school, the

visiting speakers attended one class only, but their visits were recorded on video tape and played for the other classes. It was felt that members of the executive and legislative branches of the government would also be good resource persons to bring into the classroom.

The supplemental speakers, and supplemental programs, should continue to be within the discretion of the classroom teacher, but the teachers felt that an exchange of information between teachers of this course might be helpful.

D. Seminar: The seminar was deemed essential by the teachers, since the materials and the teaching techniques are distinct from those usually presented in high schools. Even though a teacher has used the materials before, some seminar presentation should be made each year, to bring him up to date on new developments in the law.

Supplementary materials which might possibly be used, and supplementary programs which might be added, and testing techniques which can be utilized, could also be discussed at the seminar. In addition, an actual example of how a law class is conducted might be helpful.

A four-or five-day seminar, to acquaint the teachers with the materials, is preferable. Questions of individual teachers could be answered in person, teachers' experiences could be exchanged, and the discussions among teachers could stimulate new materials and new programs. However, if such a seminar could not be held, for financial or other reasons, then a very extensive teachers' manual should be prepared, containing the same information.

E. Value of Course: It was the teachers' belief that the students thought much more rationally and reasonably about the law at the end of the course. They no longer believe that law is arbitrary and restrictive. The students came to the course, the teachers said, with

the belief that law was to be manipulated for their own individual pleasure. At the end of the course, the students realized that law was the result of compromising and balancing the rights of people in general. The survey seemed to support this attitude change in students.

CHAPTER XIV

DEVELOPMENTAL ECONOMICS EDUCATION PROGRAM (DEEP)

Introducing Economic Concepts at Primary Levels
By Donald L. Davison and John H. Kilgore

During the past decade, social studies programs produced for elementary schools have undergone extensive changes. New developments, including Jerome Bruner's[1] emphasis on teaching the "structure of a discipline," together with the Joint Council on Economic Education's Project DEEP (Developmental Economic Education Program) and associated "project Social Studies," have had a profound effect upon the new programs now being published.

An early sign of the developing revolution was the publication in 1963 of Senesh's Our Working World (SRA)[2], which he describes as an "organic curriculum" for the elementary social studies. His curriculum is developmental and inter-disciplinary, containing basic concepts from not only economics, but from political science, sociology, anthropology, et.al. Today, nearly all major publishers for elementary social studies materials are in the midst of publishing "new" social studies series. Such materials present elaborate scope and sequence charts to demonstrate the development of basic concepts in economics and other behavioral sciences as well as history and geography in "inter" or "multi" disciplinary approaches to the social studies.

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[1]Bruner, Jerome. The Process of Education, Cambridge; Harvard University Press, 1962.

[2]Senesh, Lawrence. Our Working World Series, Chicago; Science Research Associates, 1963.

Another source of materials has been developed by the authors in connection with the Developmental Economic Education Program (DEEP) in the Des Moines, Iowa Public Schools. The Des Moines School District was involved in Project DEEP as a "pilot" school system from 1965-68. The major thrust of Project DEEP in Des Moines has been in the area of economic education focusing upon: (1) materials development, and (2) the in-service training of teachers, particularly at the primary level.

Close liaison was maintained by the authors with Des Moines teachers in developing economic education materials for use in the primary grades in the Des Moines Public Schools. Such a close and continuous relationship was needed for at least two important reasons. First, once the economic concepts to be taught were determined, teachers provided valuable insights into methods of presenting them to children; and secondly, close contact with teachers provided needed information on their own ability to grasp or handle economic concepts. Although extremely time-consuming, in-service programs involving teachers, curriculum specialists, and economists in the development of material probably are one of the best means of insuring that materials will be presented to children in the intended manner.

The first material developed in the Des Moines DEEP Project was published by the Joint Council on Economic Education under the title GOODS, SERVICES AND PEOPLE in 1967. A further refinement of these materials resulted in the publication of the book, THE CHILD'S WORLD OF CHOICES[3] by The University of Iowa in 1968. The CHILD'S WORLD OF CHOICES is essentially a teacher's manual and resource book for Grades K-3, providing a spiral development of economic understandings based upon five major economic

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[3]Davison, Donald L. and John H. Kilgore, The Child's World of Choices, Iowa City; University of Iowa Press, 1968 (Bureau of Business and Economic Research).

generalizations, with major understandings, major concepts and sub-concepts given under each.

Based on our experience of working with a considerable number of teachers over a protracted period of time, it seemed doubtful that the teacher who lacked formal training in economics could be expected to effectively teach economic concepts solely from a teacher's manual or resource book. Therefore, additional materials were developed which would more effectively meet the needs of such teachers. The materials, a Student Activity Book for The Child's World of Choices, Grade 2, and a Teacher's Guide to the Student Activity Book for The Child's World of Choices[4] were prepared and published in February, 1970, by the University of Iowa.

The Teacher's Guide to the Student Activity Book provides a general framework of activities and teaching strategies to be followed in introducing the children to the key economic ideas. The material is organized under the five generalizations, with appropriate activities designed for each. Each lesson in the Teacher's Guide contains references to appropriate sections of THE CHILD'S WORLD OF CHOICES for content background, term definitions, the child-oriented activities as well as related ideas and understandings under each generalization. As planned, THE CHILD'S WORLD OF CHOICES, the Student Activity Book, and the Teacher's Guide to the Student Activity Book are to be regarded as a unified body of materials in the belief that their combined use will insure the most effective teaching and learning processes.

Other student activity books and teachers' guides are to be prepared for grades one and three in the near future.

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[4]Ibid., Student Activity Book for The Child's World of Choices Teacher's Guide to Student Activity Book, Bureau of Business and Economic Research, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, 1970.

EVALUATION

The new economic education materials developed for use in the elementary grades have become increasingly sophisticated. Emphasis is placed upon the development of children's understanding of basic concepts or fundamental ideas in the discipline of economics, with these concepts to be taught as a part of the structure of the discipline.

Two basic assumptions have been predominant in the development of the new materials. First, the presumption has been that an examination of the ideas and concepts contained in the materials will provide a fascinating and meaningful experience for children. It has also been assumed that teachers will understand these concepts and present them in an effective manner. However, since evaluation instruments rarely, if ever, accompany the materials, no concrete evidence existed to confirm or refute these beliefs.

The development of a testing instrument for primary grade children is not an easy task and several problems were encountered. First, the limited reading ability of primary grade children posed a special problem in choosing the test form. Secondly, the idea of developing a multiple-choice test consisting of pictures was tried but proved to be too time-consuming and costly an operation.

The authors then considered the use of a test with Yes-No items as well as an All-No test form. However, the Yes-No test form provides the subject with only two options and tends to have a low reliability. Test results also are difficult to interpret due to the acquiescence set of children. The All-No test has a higher reliability than the Yes-No test, but it produces spuriously high achievement scores for children who are not acquiescent.

After review of a study by Larkins and Shaver[5], a test consisting of 32 matched-pair items, or 64 individual items was constructed This involved writing reversed items for each concept or bit of information being tested. "Reversed" means that for every Yes-Item there is a No-Item intended to test the same content, and the "matched" items are scored as one. This technique was devised to cope with the acquiescence-dissent biases of children and should cancel both effects.

The test items were based upon the conceptual framework of the five economic generalizations, major understandings, major concepts, and sub-concepts contained in THE CHILD'S WORLD OF CHOICES. The final form of the test was derived from preliminary try-out and item-analysis of a longer test form which contained 69 matched-pair items (138 individual items). In these preliminary try-outs with second grade children, scores of those students which fell within the upper and lower 27 per cent categories were selected for item analysis, including determination of the level of difficulty and index of discrimination for each item. The data so derived was used to reduce the number of test items from 69 to 32 and to determine those items which were to be refined, revised, or eliminated.

The final form of the test, which we call "The Primary Test of Economic understanding" or PTEU[6], was then used in conjunction with the CHILD'S WORLD OF CHOICES materials, described above, in a carefully controlled experiment in 24 classrooms of second grade children in the Des Moines Public Schools.[7] The test proved to have a reliability index of .78 (Kuder-Richardson

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[5]Larkins, A. Guy and James P. Shaver. "Matched-pairs scoring technique used on a first-grade YES-NO type economics achievement test", Utah Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Letters: Proceedings 44 (1): 229-242. 1967.

[6]Davison, Donald L. and John H. Kilgore, Primary Test of Economic Understanding (PTEU), and Examiner's Manual, Iowa City: Bureau of Business and Economic Research, University of Iowa, 1971.

[7]Ibid., An Evaluation of Second Grade Economic Materials, Iowa City: Bureau of Business and Economic Research, University of Iowa, 1970.

Formula 20) with a Standard Error of Measurement of 2.48.

Further, in terms of the 502 students involved in the experiment, it was found that the use of economics materials was the major factor in bringing about student achievement in economics. The materials were found to be equally effective in both target and non-target areas (disadvantaged vs. advantaged schools). The age and sex of the students was found to have no significance in explaining pupil achievement in economic understanding as measured by the test.

On the basis of the Des Moines experiment with this testing instrument, the PTEU was administered to some 5,000 third grade pupils in 166 classrooms in 18 states in the spring of 1971 in an attempt to acquire norming data for purposes of standardization.

It is hoped that soon the Primary Test of Economic Understanding with a complete test manual, containing technical data derived from the nation-wide administration of this test, will be available so that teachers may have a viable evaluation instrument with which to measure the degree to which their present or planned-for materials and teaching strategies in economic education at primary levels are effective.

PART IV

CROSS DISCIPLINED APPROACHES IN THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES

The term discipline implies a recognized and organized body of knowledge, specialists who have command of the body of knowledge, and recognized and accepted procedures for policing the body of knowledge to keep it up to date and functional. With such a definition we can call anthropology and sociology disciplines, and we can call social studies and mathematics disciplines. The former two are disciplines because they are knowledge storehouses for Western civilization. The latter two are disciplines because of a widely-recognized subject matter structure of the schools.

The antithesis of a discipline-centered instructional program would be a real-life setting -- in the home, on the street, in a factory, with peers, etc. -- the behaviors a student needs for effective living. In the preceding section on disciplined approaches it was noted that collegiate and secondary school programs were usually discipline based. In this section we will see several elementary school programs with cross-discipline bases.

Ralph Scott in his paper "Home Start Waterloo" describes a federally funded pre-school project which focuses upon the developing of parental insights and behaviors which will give culturally deprived and socially deprived children a reasonable chance for success when they begin their formal schooling.

Sue Donielson, in her article "Multi-Media Readiness in Social Studies," describes how a multi-media approach is used to prepare the

primary school child for the often traumatic experience encountered at about the fourth grade level when the social studies suddenly becomes abstract.

Betsy Riesz, in "Materials and Activities for Teachers and Children" (MATCH), describes a unit "A House in Ancient Greece." This experience focuses on 28 artifacts found in the excavation of a home occupied in about 400 B.C., to illustrate how upper elementary children can involve themselves in social studies where the stimuli are non-verbal rather than verbal. Here the children react to the artifacts rather than to verbal generalizations or verbally-presented factual material. The children can in a sense reconstruct the society as the archeologists did.

Robert Fitch in his article on "Man -- A Course of Study," describes a study of salmon, herring, gulls, baboons, and finally the Eskimo, which enables the student to see a continuity in life patterns from animal to man.

Prudence Dyer in her article "The Teaching of Social Values," urges both the social studies teacher and the English teacher to give their instruction a humanities focus so that the learner is taught to be more human. Such programs cannot be easily packaged; a teacher using packaged programs must build vital values-based experiences into the program so that the child emerges with functional handles on his value system. One can use literature, the child's personal experiences, current events, contemporary films, etc. as a cross-discipline springboard to nurture social values.

Clyde Kohn, in his "Investigating Man's World," presents the rationale for the Scott, Foresman elementary social studies program which samples from several disciplines.

While we all recognize the sophisticated knowledge of mankind is

stored in the academic disciplines and that man should be able to tap these disciplines both for his own personal use and for the good of society, we must also recognize that life is not compartmentalized and that the child must be taught to use knowledge in his real functional world. As the reader explores this fourth section on cross-disciplined approaches, he should find it illuminating to examine each project in light of this discipline-real life spectrum.

CHAPTER XV

HOME START: Preschool Program for Total Development of the Child

By Ralph Scott

Home Start is an early intervention program for children from two to five years of age. The racial distribution of participating children is approximately balanced between Negro and Caucasian. Although the children in the program reside in "target areas" as designated by the Office of Economic Opportunity, and might therefore be considered "disadvantaged," they represent a cross-section of youngsters living in a medium-scope Midwestern industrial city.

The inception of Home Start lies in the troubled state of education in the mid-1960's. At the same time, small pieces of research were beginning to appear and to reveal what federally commissioned study groups were soon to acknowledge: compensatory education had largely failed to stem the rising incidence of underachievers, dropouts, delinquents, pseudo-retardates, and emotionally disturbed students.[1,2] Still more upsetting because of the pressing need for progress toward racial harmony, compensatory programs had failed to close the achievement gap of black and white students.

In 1966 the writer prepared a Title I proposal, "Changing Patterns of Child-Parent-Community Interaction--An Experimental Inquiry," which was funded under the Higher Education Act. This made it possible for representatives of various business, social, civic and educational agencies of

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[1]Coleman, James S., et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity, Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966, pp. 20-21.

[2]Racial Isolation in the Public Schools: U. S. Commission on Civil Rights, Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

Waterloo, Iowa, to pool their viewpoints concerning new and emerging human needs. There was general agreement that traditional programs often identify, and begin to reach, vulnerable children too late.

In referring to the available literature, the Title I study groups were unable to locate a single preschool program which had yielded lasting gains. The failure of many preschool programs seemed linked to such factors as lack of a firm rationale, no real set of sequential experiences which were sufficiently flexible to accommodate individual differences, a focus on narrow cognitive skills (or gross social objectives) which largely overlooked the child's total milieu. It was apparent that school failure could not always be traced to lack of intellectual readiness, intellectual ability, or parental interest in the welfare of their children. The only logical conclusion seemed to be that some as-yet-undiscovered combination of experiences begins to exert an impact on children during the impressionable first years of life.

The most feasible initial focal point seemed to be the family. How parents feel about a child's learning and about what that child should and might accomplish seemed central to how the child learns, feels and behaves. Some parents, as children, went through negative classroom experiences that they often unknowingly transmit to their children. Moreover, some parents do not know how to prepare nourishing meals or to listen and to talk with their own children, to observe and discover their children's interests and then provide a series of experiences which enable the children to further their interests through active and spontaneous learning. The Title I participants therefore concluded that the community should embark on a family-centered early childhood program which focused on procedures which might foster cognitive, affective and social growth of all members of the family. It was further decided that the envisioned program

would be a pilot-experimental project designed not only to serve participating families but, through research findings, to search out new methods and procedures which might advance new facts concerning how child-parent-community interaction might bring about long-term gains.

As a result of the Title I conferences, the Waterloo Community Schools submitted a Title III proposal for Home Start. This was subsequently funded by the Office of Education for a three-year period, from August of 1968 through July of 1971. This report presents (1) the theoretical rationale of the program, (2) a summary description of the staff and general breakdown of staff responsibilities, (3) some distinctions between a home-centered program and a more traditional classroom approach, (4) the experimental design and research results of the program and (5) implications for subsequent programs.

THE THEORETICAL RATIONALE UNDERLYING HOME START

A. Not the Mind Alone

From the onset of Home Start, cognitive growth was seen in the context of the child's total environment. Although Home Start consultants have not encouraged diversions, neither have they discouraged unforeseen incursions into the social, affective, cultural or physical spheres which impinge on the child's onward cognitive progress. Consultants have had to be concerned with such issues as nutrition, housing, sanitation, health, emotional balance of one or both parents, too much or too little supervision, drunkeness, child abuse, prostitution, pandering and dope.

B. The Human Mind: Puzzle Wrapped in a Riddle?

Home Start is essentially an educational program that focuses on fostering intellectual growth, although it is recognized that a child's non-cognitive needs must often receive special priority. The program is predicated

on the belief that if children are ready for kindergarten or first grade they are more likely to enjoy academic success, which in turn heralds later vocational success, personal responsibility and independence. Of course, there are exceptions to this rule. But in general the ready child is more likely to enjoy classroom success.

In designing a program of early childhood readiness, we ran into a problem in defining "intelligence." Just what is "intelligence?" How is it developed? Fortunately, the writer and several of his colleagues had conducted a series of experiments aimed at exploring this question several years before Home Start was launched. Using the theories of Piaget and Inhelder as a general guideline, the author and his associates compared kindergarten children's scores on a language and on a perceptual (non-verbal, non-language) test. According to Piaget and Inhelder, early cognitive growth is characterized by an essential interaction between language and perception (or, to use Piaget's terms, between classification and seriation).[3] In studies carried out in this country and in Europe, the writer and his colleagues found support for the Piaget-Inhelder position: as they had predicted, there was indeed a high degree of relationship between kindergarten children's scores on a language test and on a non-language test.[4,5]

In the next step the experimenters compared the children's kindergarten readiness and third grade achievement scores to determine whether or not the combined language-perceptual scores predicted future academic patterns (in the absence of educational interventions). Once again, the

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[3]Inhelder, Barbel and Piaget, J. The Early Growth of Logic in the Child, New York, Harper and Row, 1964.

[4]Scott, R. Social-class, Race, Seriating and Reading Readiness; A Study of their Relationship at the Kindergarten Level, Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1969, Vol. 115, pp. 87-96.

[5]Scott, R. and Sattel, L. Perception and Language: A German Replication of the Piaget-Inhelder Position, Journal of Genetic Psychology, in press.

Piaget-Inhelder position was sustained: Kindergarten children with high scores in both language and perception tests were more likely to achieve classroom success.[6] But what about the children with low kindergarten scores? From the standpoint of preventive education the key question is not whether we can predict which children will later succeed or fail. The important question is whether we can identify children who will not develop their potentialities unless appropriate preventive steps are taken.

Evaluation of the data revealed that the children who were destined to fail were those youngsters who had not mastered certain basic learnings. The child in kindergarten who could not arrange a series of balls into a particular pattern (such as big, little, middle-sized: an example of what Piaget calls "pattern seriation") or organize balls into a pattern by size (from smallest to largest, or vice versa: examples of "size seriation") was a "high risk" student. The likelihood of his future classroom failure was imminent because he had not acquired the reservoir of basic understandings upon which more formal and abstract forms of learning depended.

In our preliminary studies of Home Start children, we were impressed not only by the ways in which children were different from each other (inter-child differences) but also in the complex ways they differed within themselves (intra-child differences). An identical readiness program would scarcely be appropriate for most of the children who required special help during the early years.

In order to identify the learning needs of individual children, a series of games and activities appropriate for children from two to five years of age was compiled. Although it was recognized that there would be

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[6]Scott, R. Perceptual Skills, General Intellectual Ability, Race and Later Reading Achievement. The Reading Teacher, April 1970, Vol. 23 (7), pp. 660-668.

a chronological age range dispersion for each item, the tasks were used to provide guidelines for ascertaining cognitive strategies on an individual basis.

The tasks were ordered into two levels of the Iowa Tests of Preschool Development (ITPD). This test has two levels: Level I is for children from two to three and one-half years of age; Level II is for children from three and one-half to five. Each level contains four subtests: Language, Visual-Motor, Memory and Concepts. Within each of the four subtests, clusters of tasks are identified which may be used to recommend specific games, toys or activities. Through testing rural and urban, as well as black and white children at chronological age divisions of three months, tentative norms were secured. In view of the evidence that the cognitive needs of children change swiftly during the early years, the ITPD was administered to Home Start children at intervals of five months.

In addition to using test results as a guide for specifying the toys, games and activities which might facilitate the child's learning and leadership potentials, Home Start has emphasized the following educational dimensions:

1. Child to child learning. Children are often the best teachers of children. Small group and individual activities are set up and designed to enable more experienced children to teach less experienced youngsters.

2. Intrinsic motivation. What is it that interests the child? After identifying his personal interests, we seek to provide experiences to which he is receptive and thus encourage the fanning out of those interests so as to encompass a broad variety of activities which promote general readiness.

3. Time sequence of past-present-future. The disadvantaged child

is often time-bound, and concerned almost exclusively with the present. Through an emphasis on intrinsic motivation and a variety of procedures, toys and games, we invite him to anticipate what will occur in the future as well as to remember what took place in the past. By recalling past events and anticipating future events, the child is presumably in a better position to deal adaptively with present circumstances.

4. Sequential steps in learning. Deprived children often have difficulty internalizing imagery. As a result, they react chiefly to immediate stimuli, or percepts. Through sequential experiences, efforts are made to facilitate the children to more effectively manipulate internalized imagery. This requires identification of the small ascending steps involved in cognitive progress. One finding of Home Start research is that young children can identify "big," "middle-sized" and "little" transparencies of circles before they can make similar size distinctions with transparent bears. This is apparently just one of the many little steps children make as they move from one level of ability to the next.

THE STAFF: MAKING THE PROGRAM GO

The staff of Home Start consists of five full-time professionals, and two non-professional workers, as well as a part-time social worker, psychologist and five paraprofessional testers. In addition, unpaid community volunteers serve in a number of capacities and Waterloo school personnel donate their skills in informal as well as formal collaboration with Home Start staff.

The director organizes and coordinates the total program, is responsible for policy statements and for establishing priorities. She formulates program and child staff meetings as well as meetings with parents, volunteers, and community resource personnel. The director also arranges in-service training for staff personnel and shares with staff and parents decisions

concerning selection of toys and instructional materials.

The home economist provides demonstration lessons for the mothers and helps them to provide appetizing, varied and economical meals. She also leads discussions and demonstrations with small clusters of parents concerning sewing and knitting as well as child growth and development and invites parents to sharpen their observations of a child's interests and how they may be developed through careful selection of toys, games and family-centered interaction.

The speech and language consultant tests and evaluates speech and language of all Home Start children and conducts interviews with parents concerning their child's acquisition of speech.

The educational consultant confers with staff and parents concerning the optimum use of games, toys, facilities and informal activities so as to foster learning of individual children within the framework suggested by the child's interests, the milieu of the home and the child's test scores.

The preschool teacher works directly in the classroom with children from four to five years of age. She keeps anecdotal records of the learning needs of individual children and identifies their cognitive and non-cognitive needs. She confers with parents regarding any questions they may have and thus invites the parents to better understand and to become more supportive of the school.

Employed on a half-time basis, the Home Start social worker deals primarily with the non-cognitive needs of children and their families. She confers with Home Start staff regarding non-cognitive aspects of a child's behavior and, in seeking appropriate helping resources with the community, has enabled some agencies to redefine their functions in order to better serve families.

The psychologist is responsible for evaluating the program. He selects tests, organizes evaluation procedures and assists the director in

training of paraprofessionals who administer achievement-oriented tests which identify strategies appropriate for individual children.

The paraprofessionals are housewives trained to go into the homes of the children and administer the ITPD tests. They are also encouraged to report observations concerning the home milieu which contribute to a broader understanding of the child's home experiences.

Aides and unpaid community volunteers serve the program in a variety of ways. Sometimes the aides and volunteers visit parents within the home. At other times they aid in the selection or construction of toys and learning materials. Sometimes they establish contacts in the community which broaden support for, and understanding of, special programs for the disadvantaged. The volunteers and aides attend regular in-service meetings with Home Start staff and share their views.

CLASSROOM TEACHING AND HOME-CENTERED INTERVENTION: SOME DISTINCTIONS

As the Home Start staff soon learned, there are major differences between classroom teaching and a home-centered approach to education. Early in-service seminars focused on two significant problem areas: (1) interviewing techniques and (2) the role of the Home Start staff member.

Discussions concerning interviewing include such issues as the feelings of the interviewer and interviewee, the ego defenses, and the value of reflecting and providing emotional support to parents. The question of roles elicits quite a different set of issues. Most of the Home Start staff are experienced educators, but their training emphasized classroom activities in which the teacher has a clear sense of control. In the home she has considerably less control over the situation. The teacher's view of herself, and the mother's view of her (as well as the mother's self-opinion and the teacher's view of the mother) varies from home to home.

Successful home-based intervention, however, requires that the consultant sense the varying nuances within each home and adjust her approach accordingly. Does the mother expect the consultant to direct all activities? If so, does she welcome or resist such an authoritative approach? Does a black mother perceive the consultant as a symbol of the "white establishment" (or a black consultant as symbolizing "Uncle Tomism?"). Does the mother behave differently while the consultant is in the home?

RESEARCH DESIGN AND EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In a sense, there were two Home Start programs. Group I served children for a single year when the youngsters were from four to five years of age. Group II children were involved for a three-year period when they were from two to five years of age. During the third year of Home Start, Group II children entered Group I of the program.

Group I children: from four to five years of age

Composition, Purposes and Program: Group I children were provided with a half-day of classroom enrichment the year prior to their admission into kindergarten. There were 20 children per classroom: approximately half were black and half white. The one preschool teacher was therefore responsible for 40 children per year, since there were both a morning and an afternoon group. Except for the sporadic help of a Neighborhood Youth Corps teenager, the teacher was given no supportive personnel.

There were several reasons for forming Group I:

1. To provide children living in "target" areas with a year of readiness, thus presumably increasing the likelihood that they would later experience classroom success;

2. To obtain baseline testing data with which to compare Group II children when they were four years old and entered Group I phase of Home Start, which yielded an estimate of the impact of enrichment from

the years two to four;

3. To secure observational data concerning unmet cognitive and non-cognitive needs of black and white four-year-old children, which could be used to identify growth-facilitating experiences for younger (Group II) children.

The daily program included 20 to 30 minutes of work with the Learning Readiness System (LRS) which was developed by the writer and several colleagues and which stresses sequential language and perceptual experiences.[7] Each child's responses on the LRS Seriation Test were organized to permit the preschool teacher to translate test scores into strategies for individualized readiness.

In addition to the focused enrichment which constituted the cognitive hub of enrichment for Group I children, the youngsters participated in story telling, music, sandbox activities and creative play. Parental involvement was encouraged and suggestions made concerning how parents may reinforce efforts of the school. However, Home Start consultants did not regularly visit the homes of Group I children. Essentially, the program was a classroom-centered combination of cognitively structure activities designed to foster self-confidence, social and emotional development.

Experimental Results: Group I children were pretested in the fall of 1968 at which time the average score for black children was at the twenty-seventh percentile on the LRS Seriation Test: the average white score was at the thirty-seventh percentile. These results were shared with the preschool teacher who devised strategy for individual children on the basis of the LRS Seriation Test factor scores. Group I children were administered the Tests of Primary Mental Abilities (PMS) in October, 1969, when they were in kindergarten, and again in October, 1970, when they attended

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[7] Scott, R., Dunbar, Ann and Nelson, J. The LRS Seriation Test. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

first grade, or two years after the introduction of enrichment procedures. Black children made substantially greater progress in Group I of Home Start than did white children. The findings suggest that the one year of enrichment yielded greatest gains with black girls; somewhat less but still statistically significant effects are noted with black boys. No statistically significant gains were achieved by either white boys or white girls.

Group II children: from two to five years of age

Composition, Purposes and Program: Group II youngsters were provided with home-centered enrichment from the years two to four. From four to five years, Group II children were provided with the Group I Home Start program as described, which was also supported by Home Start staff continuing their family-oriented educational encouragement.

Within four months after their enrollment in Home Start, the children were given the Stanford-Binet (LM) Test while their mothers were given the Verbal Scale of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale. The average IQ of the white mothers and children were practically identical while black children secured IQs about ten points higher than their mothers. When Group II children turned five years of age in 1970 or 1971, they were given the Primary Mental Abilities Test (PMA). On this test all four subgroups (white boys, white girls, black boys, black girls) of Group II children have acquired IQs at or above the average range. It will be recalled that at the onset of Home Start there was a ten-point IQ differential between black children and their mothers and no difference between white mothers and their children. Present findings suggest that the program has enabled both white and black children to achieve higher IQs than their parents. This is reason for hope that some headway is being made in efforts to curtail cultural disadvantage.

Summing up the results, it appears that both Group I and Group II black children have obtained higher readiness scores as a result of Home Start participation. The pattern of their scores, however, appears to be partly influenced by the timing of intervention. For example, four to five year old black children who received a year of enrichment secured substantially lower scores on the Spatial Relations subtest than on other measures of the PMA, while comparable black children enrolled in Home Start from two to five years of age obtained their lowest scores on the Number Facility subtest. Stodolsky and Lesser have suggested that cognitive profiles may be primarily determined by ethnicity, and secondarily by social class.[8] The Home Start results which are reported here indicate that at least a third dimension, the timing of educational intervention, influences the cognitive profiles of black children.

Home Start results with white children are not as conclusive as those obtained with respect to black children. The findings do indicate, however, that a single year of enrichment failed to significantly raise the achievements of white participants. The findings also indicate that longer (three year) involvement has raised the scores of white children on the PMA.

With both black and white children a steady thread runs through these results, and that is that language is a relative strength of children who reside in "disadvantaged" areas. If further research should give further support to this, it would seem obvious that many compensatory education programs which stress language enrichment must be reassessed.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH AND PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

The results of this experiment indicate that early enrichment which

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[8]Stodolsky, S. S. and Lesser, G. Learning Patterns in the Disadvantaged. Harvard Educational Review. 1967, 37, pp. 546-593.

utilizes sequential learning, and which invites parental involvement and participation, enables many children residing in "disadvantaged" areas to enter school without a readiness handicap. Although the mean scores of the black and white children in the program are within the average range, it is significant that the pattern of the children's scores is partially dependent upon the developmental point in which educational intervention began. In other words, the cognitive profiles with which deprived children enter school is to some extent a function of the timing of preschool intervention. The impact and meaning of varied cognitive profiles will be assessed through evaluating the children's progress through school.

In addition to following the experimental and control subjects through school to ascertain the effects of various forms and timing of early enrichment, it is recommended that

1. carefully planned Follow-Through efforts be made to do what is possible to assure children's subsequent classroom success,

2. in-service training of teachers emphasize work with parents and include specific focus on interviewing and role theory,

3. universities engaged in teacher preparation emphasize clinical teaching, parental interviews, role theory and contribution of community resources to strengthening children's school adjustments through stabilizing the family.

4. communities reassess current agency structures to determine the extent to which they are serving human (and especially family) needs in our increasingly technological age.

CHAPTER XVI

A MULTI-MEDIA READINESS PROGRAM FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

By Susan Donielson

Young children are eager to learn, and bring to school with them varying backgrounds which they can draw upon and extend in an appropriate social studies program. Beginners come ready for a dynamic program of instruction related to their developing language power, to their wide-ranging curiosity, and to their individual capabilities.

Field Educational Publications have prepared a multi-media readiness program for beginners in school, whether they are in kindergarten or first grade. Their program, "Schools, Families, Neighborhoods," includes a study of these three topics and also a study of holidays. This program encompasses the social, political, and economic groups which the beginning pupil needs to be aware of. His comprehension of interaction and social behavior in the context of these topics will serve as preparation for his later studies of people in more complex forms of organization and in more remote times.

The topics are taught in terms of self-understanding and understanding of others. The program is designed to encourage the pupil to develop a positive self-concept and to understand his role in the social groups of which he may be a member. The study also focuses on developing the understanding that other "selves" contribute to the interaction of people in groups.

Multiple objectives are receiving attention in the teaching of social studies today, whereas emphasis formerly was placed on teaching extensive and specific factual knowledge. Goals stressed today are: (1) development of thinking ability; (2) development of understanding in concepts and facts; (3) development of values and attitudes, and (4) skill

development. These goals aim at helping students gain the understandings, values, attitudes, and skills necessary for today's ever-changing world. Much of the knowledge of today will be inadequate for tomorrow, and the greatest preparation we can provide pupils is the ability to think.

The pupil observes, compares, classifies, interprets, and uses other inquiry processes as he investigates his school and other schools, his family and other families, his neighborhood and other neighborhoods. He uses information to develop concepts and generalizations about his own roles and the role of others, and about consequent interactions of people in school, family and neighborhood groups. If holidays are studied, he becomes aware of customs and values integral to their observance.

Inquiry processes utilized in "Schools, Families, Neighborhoods," are:

I. Input (processes used in developing concepts)

A. Observing: This process, basically visual, is usually used with a study print or with a situation or object in the classroom.

Examples: What does the picture show?

What do you see in our classroom that is used to help pupils learn?

B. Recalling: Recalling takes place when an answer to a question is reached without analysis but with immediate recall from experiences the pupil has had. Responses of this kind are sometimes personal and subjective and are not necessarily shared by all pupils in the class.

Examples: What do you like when you hear fast music?

What have we already done today?

What is a piano used for?

C. Comparing: In this process pupils are asked to find similarities or differences between objects, people, or situations. Several questions may be asked in a series to develop this process.

Examples: How are these neighborhoods different from the tall city neighborhoods we saw before?

How are the neighborhoods alike?

In what ways is a hospital like a home?

D. Classifying: This process involves grouping items on the basis of like characteristics, and requires establishing guidelines or criteria.

Examples: What kinds of people besides doctors are needed to run hospitals?

How do people travel in neighborhoods?

E. Analyzing: This process is used in breaking down a concept into parts and explaining reasons for the relationship of the parts. It goes beyond recalling in that the pupil is asked to find reasons that are not immediately evident and that require some analysis or logical thought.

Examples: Why do neighborhoods need sidewalks and streets?

Do all families spend their mornings the same way? (recalling) Why not? (analyzing)

Why do you think some families have rules?

F. Interpreting: This process, a subjective one, is used in defining or describing on the basis of personal experiences and feelings. An interpretation is neither right nor wrong, but is merely a statement of a pupil's perception and introspections.

Examples: What is happening in this picture?

What are these children doing?

G. Inferring: This process requires the pupil to project his feelings or ideas into a situation that is outside his own immediate experience. It is often used when a pupil is asked to talk about people or ideas in a study print.

Examples: How do you think the boy feels?

Do you think all homes in Japan look like this one?

II. Intermediary (process used in extending concepts).

Generalizing: This process enables the pupils to expand understandings beyond the facts that have been presented or developed.

Examples: Why do people around the world live in different kinds of homes? (previous questions have brought out diversity of homes)

Who makes any shelter into a home?

What does this tell you about how families change?

III. Output (processes used in applying concepts and generalizations).

A. Hypothesizing: This process is used in making a tentative judgment, assumption, or conclusion in which some allowance for testing is included. Testing does not have to be done in the formal sense of a controlled experiment, but it may be incorporated through further questioning by the teacher or through obvious comparisons with a pupil's own experiences.

Examples: Do you think all people in our country do the same things in the evening?

What would happen if one person had to do all the work around the house?

B. Predicting: In using this process, the pupil applies his experiences to a projected event or a probable outcome of an observed situation. He is not expected to prove his prediction, which may differ from someone else's prediction.

Examples: Can you guess what the children do when their father comes home from work?

What do you think the class might do after they have finished dancing?

C. Evaluating: This process is used when a pupil is asked to give a value judgment or to respond to a situation in which his values are the basis for the response.

Examples: Is it always wrong to cry?

Is disagreement always bad?

Would you like to be a teacher?

D. Synthesizing: This process is used in compiling and organizing related facts and material. This process, the bringing together of information, appears only in the activities.

Other trends of significance in education include emphasis on affective objectives, study skills objectives, inter-disciplinary approaches, cross-cultural studies, organization of instruction, application of child development studies, multi-media approach, and evaluation.

Affective objectives: This area has gained new emphasis and attention in teaching. Cognitive learning includes concepts, generalizations, study skills and inquiry processes. Affective learning involves the development of feelings, attitudes, interests, and values. Children must be helped to explore values and use them in their choice and decision making. Teachers can help pupils link the two kinds of learning when feelings, attitudes, values, and interests are developed and expressed in a cognitive learning situation and transferred to life situations.

Study skill objectives: Such skills as reading, reporting, planning, discussing, evaluating, interviewing, map making, and applying chronology now assume strategic importance in the scope and sequence of social studies

programs.

Inter-disciplinary approach: With this approach, data and concepts are required from all the social sciences, such as psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology, political science, economics, geography, and history. This approach also requires the use of mathematics, science, literature, and art. Functional content is selected and used in terms of the subject being investigated.

Cross-cultural approach: The pupil is introduced to other cultures as he studies his own environment in each unit. He sees schools, families, and neighborhoods in Japan, India, Ghana, Mexico, and Norway as well as in the U.S. This approach serves three purposes. First, it enables the pupil to make comparisons between familiar and unfamiliar situations. Thus, even at this beginning level of learning, he can actively express his observations and raise questions about them. Second, cross-cultural comparison of social phenomena such as school buildings, clothing, homes, activities, and family structures helps the pupil become aware of their essential character. Third, knowledge of people in differing cultures promotes the development of positive attitudes toward their universality and diversity.

Organization of instruction: Traditional descriptive units and courses are being replaced with in-depth learning. Studies are becoming the basis of the curriculum at all grade levels. The teacher selects a factual framework and plans for discovery by implementing inductive learning of those facts.

Application of child development studies: Studies of children stress inductive programs. If intake and output experiences are equally shared, pupils will be more involved in learning. "Active" is the key word; motivation is higher when pupils play an active role.

Multi-media approach: There is a well-established trend toward use of a variety of instructional materials. TV programs, tape recordings, pictures clipped from magazines, filmstrips, films, recordings, overhead transparencies, and globes are all available to provide systematic presentation or reinforcement of concepts and skills stressed in the school curriculum. Varied materials are useful for meeting individual differences, for the extension of learning, and for obtaining higher quality output in discussion, in individual and group work, in expression of new ideas, and in evaluation.

Evaluation: Evaluation must be an integral part of instruction. Informal day-by-day observation is made of each pupil's behavior as he uses concepts, engages in inquiry, applies study skills and expresses attitudes, values, and interests. Formal evaluation at the beginning levels may be in the form of planned questions, picture tests, or chart making.

All of these new trends are evident in this "multi-media readiness program." Ninety-five study posters, carefully chosen to offer accurate representations of the subject matter, serve as the basis for data-gathering experiences to be shared by the whole class. As a study print is discussed, comparisons and applications to the pupils' own experiences are made. Many of the study prints can be used more than once. Related prints are listed at the end of each lesson. Some are to be reshown as a planned part of lesson development. Others may be listed as optional. Any study print, preferably after its major application, may be used with others to review or extend learnings.

In review lessons, filmstrips serve as the basis for further experiences to be shared by the whole class. There are short strips and sound strips. The sound strips are used at the end of each unit to provide general unit

review, summarize learnings, and show a wealth of cross-cultural applications. In each one, six countries are used for concept review and cross-cultural comparison.

Flexibility is also an important part of today's social studies program. As children use the discovery approach, many unplanned learnings develop.

The Elmwood School 1969-70 economic project, a joint project for kindergarten and sixth grade students, came about through pupil interest. The study of economic concepts began with one full year's study of family, school and neighboring interdependence. Basic understandings were developed by emphasizing the division of labor, producers, consumers, wants, needs, production, money as a medium of exchange, resources, goods and services, and how businesses operate.

Next the students discovered a need to earn money income, made plans to operate a business to earn this income, and executed a business venture. Each kindergarten class negotiated a $100 loan, purchased supplies, and started production. The children conducted a market research and decided upon ten kinds of cookies. They made a comparative study of pricing to determine cost factors, and paid rent to the building principal and to teachers for use of two electric roasters. A total of 287 dozen cookies were baked by 64 kindergarten children and 34 sixth graders. An extensive advertising campaign was launched, division of labor was used to package, and sales were made to parents and other children in the school. The children earned enough to repay the loan with interest, donate $50 to the PTA for a school project, and still have a 20-cent profit for each child for his labor. The culminating, and perhaps most valuable experience, was a room store from which the children could purchase desired items. Each child was given two cents a day of his earned income for ten days to either spend or save. This became a first-hand experience in

learning the value of money. No value judgment was allowed, and each child began to realize the necessity for wise choice making.

Thus, the school year ended with feelings of pride, accomplishment, friendship, cooperation, and purpose. Not only were many important economic understandings experienced, but equally important social learnings developed as a result of team effort toward a common goal. Everyone involved gained from these encounters. School personnel, children, parents, and community leaders all were touched in varying ways, thanks to a beginning study of our economic society.

CHAPTER XVII

MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHERS AND CHILDREN (MATCH)

By Elizabeth Riesz

"You become them and then you understand."
-- Fifth grade girl using
JAPANESE FAMILY

"The children's response to the objects was almost grabby, like feeding puppies meat."
-- Teacher using A HOUSE OF
ANCIENT GREECE

MATCH units are multi-sensory kits of artifacts, photographs, books, records, role cards, maps and models designed to engage children in a two to four week social studies experience. Teacher's guides outline activities for students and strategies for organizing the classroom during the unit. Student guides and role cards direct small group and individual activity. The units are designed to circulate through a media center from class to class, being used by about ten classes per year.

MATCH units were developed by the Children's Museum of Boston under a project directed by Mr. Frederick H. Kresse and sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education. From July, 1964, until the project's completion in May, 1968, sixteen units were developed and tested, three of which are now available for national distribution through American Science and Engineering, Inc.:

1. THE CITY (grades 1 through 4)
2. JAPANESE FAMILY (grades 4 through 6)
3. A HOUSE OF ANCIENT GREECE (grades 5 through 7)

THE CITY

The materials in this unit were selected "to help young children form an idea of what a city is, what happens in it, how it changes."[1] They are not designed to teach particular facts about particular cities, but, through manipulation by the child, to encourage him to develop his concept of "cityness," to try out that concept by using new materials and by interacting with other children, and so to refine and expand his concept.

The materials are designed so that the teacher can observe the child's interaction with them in order to assess the ideas he already holds about cities. She then can structure some transactions between the child and materials to further elaborate his concept. Four general areas can be supported by the activities outlined in the teacher's guide:

A general view of the city and a sampler of the unit

People and the dynamics of the city

The neighborhood and its relation to the city

The physical form of the city and maps

JAPANESE FAMILY

The purpose of the unit is for children to discover through role playing the suburban middle-class Japanese family, with particular emphasis on:

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[1]Kresse, Frederick H., The City; Teacher's Guide (Boston: American Science and Engineering, Inc., 1969), p. 1.

its members, their roles and relationships

its basic belongings and manners

several contemporary occupations

changes over several generations

Throughout the unit the class is divided into five families, each of which learns about a particular aspect of Japanese family life by studying artifacts and explanatory material about them. The functioning of the families is based on the relationships in Japanese families, with the father as "head" or group chairman guiding the activities. Each family reads its 100-year family history to understand something of the cultural background and to learn of changes in Japanese family life. Simulated marriages and retirement of the fathers convey change in the present.

A HOUSE OF ANCIENT GREECE

The purpose of the unit is (1) to help children develop the ability to make observations and inferences from archaeological data, and (2) to help children recreate life in the Villa of Good Fortune 2300 years ago. The Villa was actually excavated by Dr. David N. Robinson between 1928 and 1934.

The class is divided into six archaeological teams. Each team excavates one room of the Villa by examining artifacts, photographs and diagrams. A research guide used by the "chief archaeologist" helps the children notice details and discover relationships. Each team makes a presentation of their objects and life in the room they've excavated as they view it. The class as a whole tries to reconstruct life in the Villa.

Throughout, the children consider how we know about the past, and what limitations there are on evidence from the past. In using the processes of the archaeologist, the children are also using a model of social

science process, one of the goals of the New Social Studies. They are practicing the gathering and organizing of data, formulation of hypotheses, revision of hypotheses in light of new information, and synthesis or conclusions.

Several assumptions underlie the concept of MATCH units:

First, as the teacher's guides explain, "Much of what we would like children to learn is essentially non-verbal, that is, it cannot be communicated through words, but is mediated instead through what the learner does. Non-verbal learning takes place when the child is meaningfully engaged with some physical thing--be it a model, an ancient artifact, a pair of chopsticks, a lump of clay, a film, or perhaps another child."[1]

Second, real objects reach in new ways children who are successful with words and enable children who are not as successful with words to encounter ideas and people. Having interacted with real objects, children of different skills and abilities can interact with one another's developing concepts and processes.

Third, real objects can engage children at several levels: terminology, facts, concepts, processes, and values.

Fourth, real objects stimulate the child to become the agent of his own learning.

Fifth, in a productive learning environment, the teacher is a guide, a co-explorer, a facilitator. With real objects as the focus of learning, the teacher is not "the authority," the answer giver, but rather, with the help of the teacher's guide, a collaborator.

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[1] Ibid., p. v.

Sixth, materials in a classroom should be selected for the relationship to one another, the system they build. As three logs in a fireplace make a better fire than one or two, materials selected together spark one another, increasing the significance of each item.

Seventh, materials and activities should be designed together. Rather than seeing an exhibit in the classroom, children should create events through their encounter with the materials and with each other.

The MATCH units reflect some of the trends of the new social studies:

There is an emphasis on concepts inductively taught. "Role" emerges as a construct for thinking as a child takes the role of a Japanese family member and interacts with his classmates in ways that represent the responsibilities of that family member in Japan.

There is a concern with process goals as an objective for learning. The students make hypotheses, test and revise them as they work out the archaeological puzzle of reconstructing life in the Villa of Good Fortune.

An awareness is encouraged that facts are not an end in themselves, but are useful and meaningful for creating patterns (structure). Removing shoes makes sense when the floor covering in a Japanese home is straw matting.

The units focus on levels of thinking higher than recall. Children play a series of games with 36 photographs in order to classify, categorize, and sequence images of the city.

There is a commitment to social studies based on current data from social science disciplines.

Several procedures and teaching techniques are especially appropriate for teaching MATCH units.

INQUIRY TECHNIQUES

Children:

1. receive data in a tangible form (artifacts, photographs, diagrams) with which they must solve a problem;

2. raise questions as a result of their interaction with materials and are guided to pursue answers to their own questions, using data from the units and data they locate outside the unit;

3. function in teams, challenging, aiding, reinforcing each other;

4. are not looking for THE answer, but are developing many possible solutions.

5. are expected to use their unique imaginations and personal viewpoints and interpretations in the activities;

6. turn to the teacher as an advisor, not as the source of answers.

CRITICAL THINKING TECHNIQUES

Children are encouraged to:

1. give supporting evidence for conclusions they state
2. identify relationships among data or events
3. hold more than one possibility open at a time
4. offer opinions, and be open to others' opinions
5. evaluate how they and their team are functioning
6. compare evidence from two pieces of data
7. relate themselves and their values to the subject of study
8. explain why something makes sense in one time or place, but might not make sense in a different time or place.

A major impetus toward the identification of behavioral objectives has resulted from the disenchantment with knowledge as the sole end product of the educational process. One whose objective is amassing facts may never learn "how to use" information or, worse yet, may never "learn how to learn." He becomes conditioned to submit to the finality of authority, rather than to question, to consider, to test, to evaluate. Behavioral objectives focus attention on the learner, making the student the agent of his learning. Behavioral objectives reflect a commitment to "reflective doing" rather than to "passive absorbing."

Bloom and Krathwohl have clarified the range of processes that should be of concern in learning. Behavioral objectives, when reviewed against their taxonomies, alert the planner to the possibilities of arranging experiences for the learner so that he may operate both at and above the first levels, knowledge and awareness. Similarly, the planner, in reviewing behavioral objectives once stated, can assess whether the student will have the opportunity to function both in the cognitive and in the affective domains--that is, whether he will be involved in processes requiring him to analyze, modify, relate, and evaluate information, and also be involved in relating that experience to his evolving self.

Real objects in the MATCH units become the vehicle, the medium of exchange, for achievement of student behaviors, for the student to be his own agent in the realms of thinking and valuing. The behaviors are specified for the student in guides written for him. The behaviors include examination and manipulation of objects, interaction with other students, production of hypotheses, insights, communications, and conclusions. The successful achievement of the behaviors, guided by queries, suggestions, strategies, is demonstrated by the student's interaction with

objects and with other students. The student is aware of the purpose of his activity, recognizes its achievement, and builds a sense of mastery, crucial to his self-image.

The guides originally developed did not describe objectives in behavioral terms. The Eastern Regional Institute for Education (E.R.I.E.) has rewritten the guide for A House of Ancient Greece in behavioral terms.[1]

The following sample behavioral objectives are identified to illustrate the range in levels of student behavior, the distribution in the cognitive and affective domains, and the route by which the student comes to deal with fundamental social science concepts. The listing is meant to be illustrative rather than exhaustive. Samples are from the JAPANESE FAMILY unit.

A. Cognitive

1.00 KNOWLEDGE

1.10 Specifics

A student will describe at least three occupations of suburban Japanese families.

1.11 Terminology

A student will know the name and function of at least four Japanese household objects not found in the United States.

1.21 Convention

A student will use at least three of the following sources to learn about Japanese family life: family histories, role cards, job cards, explanatory diagrams, photo album, record, artifacts.

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[1]An example of an E.R.I.E. cognitive and affective objective follow:

1. (cognitive) Upon completing these activities, the child should be able to: construct at least three plausible inferences about a people, based upon his observations of a simple object made by them.

2. (affective) While participating in the activities of this exercise, the child will: demonstrate that he is satisfied with the accomplishments of his team (a "we did a good job"attitude).

Sample behaviors to look for: He consults with and respects the opinions held by other members of his team.

2.00 COMPREHENSION

2.30 Extrapolation

A student will describe at least two changes which have occurred in "his" family's life in the last three generations and will suggest at least two that might occur in the next generation.

The student will make voluntary observations, hypotheses or inferences about life in Japan based on experiences he is having with the materials in the unit.

3.00 APPLICATION

When presented with vignettes of life in a Japanese family, a student will describe probable courses of action by the family and will explain his rationale, based on his knowledge of at least one of several hierarchies in Japanese families (decision-making, status, labor).

While acting as a member of a classroom family simulating life in a Japanese family, a student will use his knowledge of decision-making, status and labor hierarchies to assign tasks such as group chairman, curator of artifacts, mediator in disagreements, messenger to the office, liaison with the teacher, and to assign tasks for the production of a family scrapbook.

A student will be able to write the character which stands for his family name.

When beginning to study another culture, the student will suggest questions for study which reflect at least three of the categories used for studying Japanese family life (clothing, food, religion, art, footwear, writing system, family structure, marriage customs).

4.00 ANALYSIS

4.10 Elements

A student will be able to explain the functional relationship among at least four Japanese household items.

4.30 Organizational Principles

A student will make comments of the "I once thought. . . but now I see" variety to show that what might be considered strange for Americans makes sense in the Japanese situation (tabi protect rice straw mats, little furniture allows for quiet beauty, grandparents are respected within family circle).

Using directions in the family guide, a student will fill out a family register to represent relationships among individuals in the family.

5.00 SYNTHESIS

5.10 Unique Communication

Each student will contribute to the production of one item or arrangement of artifacts by his family to simulate a portion of a Japanese family room.

Each student will contribute to a scrapbook of his experience as a "member" of a Japanese family.

5.20 Plan Operations

Each student will participate in planning and presenting a vignette of one aspect of Japanese family life.

5.30 Abstract Relations

The student will be able to explain at least two principles by which a Japanese family is organized and contrast it with his own experiences.

A student will demonstrate his understanding of the principles guiding marriage in Japan by deciding what type of daughter-in-law would be appropriate for his family and supporting his decision with at least two reasons from the family history.

Given a vignette of a family who does not have a first son able to take over as head of the family, a student will describe at least two ways a family could insure continuity of their line.

The student will be able to describe at least two ways in which the Japanese incorporate awareness in their everyday life (flower arrangement, scroll, pattern on kimono, arrangement of food, simplicity of furnishings in family room).

6.00 EVALUATION

6.20 External Criteria

A student will be able to evaluate the allotment of responsibility for the vignette presented by another "family" on the basis of his knowledge about hierarchy in Japanese families.

B. Affective

2.0 RESPONDING

2.2 Willingness

The student will demonstrate the depth of his involvement with the activity by such statements as, "Do we have to stop now?"

The student will exhibit curiosity about the coming activities of the unit by asking the teacher questions of the "What's next?" type.

The student shows an eagerness to continue with aspects of the study by such actions as visiting the "family room" during free time to practice calligraphy, study the book of poetry or leaf through the magazine, talking with another family member about their artifacts.

The student indicates an involvement with the study by bringing items from family or friends relating to Japan or by reading to find answers to questions he has raised and voluntarily presenting the results to someone in the class.

2.3 Satisfaction

The student shows satisfaction in his family's ability to function: "We had a problem, but we knew how to work it out."

The student demonstrates an involvement with his role in relation to others in his family by such action as referring to them by their Japanese name, by suggesting activities in another subject period that relate to his role, by introducing himself to a visitor in the room by his Japanese name and explaining his relationship in his family.

3.0 VALUING

3.1 Acceptance of a Value

The student will show a respect for the objects by such statements as "Are they really from Japan?" "It sure takes a lot of patience to do one of these well (scroll)."

3.3 Commitment

Having participated as a member of a Japanese family and having made comparative statements about family life in America and Japan, the student will voluntarily make statements about the value to him of family organization. (We learn different things, but we both learn from families. Maybe there needs to be a boss in a family group. Young people and older people need families especially. Families do things in different ways, but many are the same things just done differently.)

He explains why the Japanese way is appropriate for the Japanese and defends the position if challenged.

He can give two examples of "modern" Japanese life that aren't "American."

4.0 ORGANIZATION

4.1 Conceptualization of a Value

Having functioned as a member of a family group, the student will demonstrate he is isolating the properties of roles within families and the values of roles by making comparative statements about roles in American and Japanese families. (If I think men and women are really equal in the family then nobody would have a certain job. But maybe not everybody should try to do everything.)

MATERIALS IN MATCH UNITS

	THE CITY	JAPANESE FAMILY	A HOUSE OF ANCIENT GREECE
Artifacts		Clothing--Tanaka family (kimono, sash, etc.) Religion--Kawaii (bell, incense, ancestor tablet, etc. Art--Yamakawa (flowers, bowl, scroll) Shoes--Honda (geta, slippers, tabi) Food--Yashida (soup bowl, pickle plate, bean curd soup, etc.)	Alpha Kit--sling bullet, pebbles, kylix, etc. Beta Kit--spoon, mortar, owl cup, etc. Gamma Kit--Athena, fibula, loom weight, etc. Delta Kit--fishhook, nail, coins, etc. Epsilon Kit--head, goat, aryballos, etc. Zeta Kit--horse, ring, stylus, etc.
Objects or Models	75 wooden buildings Model board 4 magic windows	Calligraphy brushes Ink stone, stick, seal, water dish Living room table	
Photographs	"Picture Pool" of 36 pictures 4 aerial photographs Washington Los Angeles Boston New York	Family Album	Photo finds
Student Guides		Family guide Family history Role cards Job cards Artifact cards	Research guides Archaeologists' notes
Teacher's guide	Teacher's guide	Teacher's guide Poetry translation IE register IE register worksheets	Teacher's guide

Records	"City Sounds"	"Sounds of Japan" Comic Magazine Poetry	
Film; filmstrip	"My City"	"The Japanese" (optional)	"Destination Olynthus" "Olynthus Revisited"
Maps or charts	"Five Corners" one large, plus one for each child	Uchi chart Calligraphy	Villa sketches Villa floor plan Villa plan with teams Map of Greece
Books	4 books on cities		3 books on Greece or archaeology

Lesson C MATCH EXERCISE 2: E PLURIBUS UNUM*

A House of
Ancient Greece

Cognitive Objectives

Upon completing these activities, the child should be able to:

1. State at least three observations of a simple object which are significant to constructing inferences based upon them.

2. Construct at least three plausible inferences about a people, based upon his observations of a simple object made by them.

3. Demonstrate active participation as a member of a team investigating a problem posed by the teacher.

Affective Objective

While participating in the activities of this exercise, the child will:

1. Demonstrate that he enjoys the work being done with the unit and its materials.

Sample Behavior(s) to look for:

. "Opinion Voting Box" results.

. Child voluntarily brings foreign coins, coil collections, etc., to class.

Rationale

This, the second exercise of A House of Ancient Greece, is one of two introductory exercises designed to prepare the children for a series of archeological experiences. The science of archeology leans heavily upon the processes of observing and inferring, and so it is these two

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*Ritz, William C. and Frederick H. Kreese, TEACHER'S GUIDE TO THE ERIE MODIFICATION OF A HOUSE OF ANCIENT GREECE, pp. 20-22,

processes which provide the central focus for this exercise and the ones which follow.

Exercises 1 and 2 introduce the children to the science of archeology. Some teachers prefer to use just one of these to ready their pupils for "excavating" the Villa, or to do both activities the same day. Whichever alternative is chosen, keep these activities short; stop before the children get bored.

The context of this exercise is obviously different from that of the previous one. Whereas the work of Exercise 1 placed the pupil in the position of making inferences about something that happened in the past, the work of Exercise 2 requires him to make inferences of a much different sort. In this exercise, he is to consider what someone 2300 years from now might reasonably infer about the American people based upon his observations about one or more of our coins.

From these coins, what could such a person discover about our life? It is an underlying assumption of this exercise that even simple objects such as coins can tell us much about the people who made and used them, and this concept is of obvious importance to the science of archeology.

Materials

You will need to supply six coins: three pennies, one nickel, one dime, one quarter.

Instructional Procedure

Introduction

Begin the discussion by asking the children if they like detective stories. Who is your favorite detective hero? What does he do? The object of this portion of the discussion is that of making the children aware of the fact that detectives must gather clues (pieces of evidence) in order to reconstruct an event that occurred when they were not present. When you

feel that this point has been reasonably well made, tell the children that they are going to become detectives in the work of this exercise.

Activity 1

Divide the class into six groups. Give one coin to each group. Have the children imagine that their coins have been found in the year 4270 A.D. (2300 years from now) by people who are trying to find out about the long-lost civilization of America. Using only the coins, what could these people discover about our lives?

Encourage the groups to identify as many different kinds of information offered by their coins as possible (for example, what the coin was made of, how it was made, what messages are on it, etc.). These will serve as clues to the kind of civilization that used the coins.

After the groups have completed their investigations, have each group report its findings to the class. Start with the three penny groups so that as each group reports, you can compare its approach and the conclusions it reached with those of the other two. Students should begin to see that differing theories may arise from the same piece of evidence, and that some theories seem more reasonable than others. Often the most reasonable theory of all arises when two or more theories come together. Ask the groups if they can combine any of their theories on the penny.

Then hear the other three groups' reports. As new evidence is introduced from different coins, point out the ways that the new evidence either supports or contradicts existing evidence.

Activity 2 (Optional)

If pupil interest and enthusiasm persists, allow the students to extend their observational-inferential work, employing other coins of other denominations, or perhaps even foreign coins. In each case, the focus of the activity should be the question, "What does this coin tell us about American

(or other nationality) life?" The work of Activity 2 could well be assigned to small groups of children, who might at a later time report their findings and inferences to the rest of the class.

In any case, conclude the work of Exercise 2 by reminding the children that archeologists, like detectives, examine clues from the past in order to infer what happened and how people lived long ago.

Lesson D MATCH EXERCISE 5: BURIED VILLA*

A House of
Ancient Greece

Cognitive Objectives

Upon completing these activities, the child should be able to:

1. Demonstrate, at a level commensurate with his own ability and interest, performance of his role as a member of an archeological team, and describe the roles of the other members of his team.

2. Demonstrate the ability to make appropriate use of the Villa floor plan as an information source.

3. State that the objects employed in this exercise are reproductions of artifacts and describe the rationale for employing these in place of authentic ones.

4. State at least five properties of the "find" provided for his team.

5. State at least one plausible inference (whether "right" or "wrong") in regard to the possible function(s) of the "find" provided for his team.

Affective Objectives

While participating in the activities of this exercise, the child will:

1. Demonstrate that he is satisfied with the accomplishments of his team (a. "We did a good job" attitude).

Sample Behavior(s) to look for:

. He consults with and respects the opinions held by other members of his team.

2. Demonstrate that he is satisfied with the personal accomplishments achieved during the activities of the exercise (an "I did a good job" attitude).

*Ritz and Kresse, Ibid, pp. 46-48, 52-56.

Sample Behavior(s) to look for:

. He can cite at least three specific instances in which something he himself said or did helped his team to reach its goals.

. There is an obvious quality of pride shown by the way that he reports his personal accomplishments to others.

3. Demonstrate that he enjoys the work being done with this unit and its materials.

Sample Behavior(s) to look for:

. "Opinion Voting Box" results.

. He will enthusiastically discuss the activities and materials of the unit with his classmates, teacher, and members of his family.

. He will participate fully in the classroom activities of the unit with a minimum of distraction.

. He makes statements such as "I might like to be an archeologist."

Rationale

It is suggested that the "student archeologists" of your class devote at least three class periods to the study of "finds" from the Villa of Good Fortune. Exercise 5 constitutes the first of these three periods, and it is designed to be guided by the teacher. However, the work of the second and third periods -- Exercises 6 and 7 -- is to be guided by questions and comments found in each team's Research Guide.

An important aspect of Exercise 5 is the organization of six archeological teams within your class. Each of these teams is identified by a letter of the Greek alphabet and is assigned the exploration of a specific area of the Villa. It is very important to see that competent team leaders are chosen, because the rest of the lessons will succeed or fail depending upon their leadership. Before beginning the work of this exercise, give careful thought to choosing the following:

Six Chief Archeologists to head each of the six teams. These should include your brightest leaders.

Six Recorders to take notes for the teams. The Recorders will determine what information and which guesses to record.

Six Archivists to receive from you, label, take care of and return to you all reproductions, Research Guides, Photo Finds, etc.

Divide the rest of the class among the six teams.

CHAPTER XVIII

MAN: A COURSE OF STUDY (MACOS)

By Dr. Robert Fitch

"Man: A Course of Study" (MACOS) was put together on the basis of a theoretical structure provided by Professor Jerome S. Bruner, psychologist and director of the Center for Cognitive Studies at Harvard University. The course is, in effect, the practical rendering and application of Bruner's ideas on learning and how learning takes place as set forth in his widely heralded little book, The Process of Education.[1] In it Bruner emphasizes the power of organizing ideas as a way of shaping and stimulating thought:

> The curriculum of a subject should be determined by the most fundamental understanding that can be achieved of the underlying principles that give structure to that subject. Teaching specific topics or skills without making clear their context in the broader fundamental structure of a field of knowledge is uneconomical in several deep senses. In the first place, such teaching makes it exceedingly difficult for the student to generalize from what he has learned to what he will encounter later. In the second place, learning that has fallen short of a grasp of general principles has little reward in terms of intellectual excitement. The best way to create interest in a subject is to render it worth knowing, which means to make the knowledge gained usable in one's thinking beyond the situation in which the learning has occurred. Third, knowledge one has acquired without a sufficient structure to tie it together is knowledge that is likely to be forgotten.[2]

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[1] Bruner, J. S. The Process of Education (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1962).

[2] Ibid., p. 31.

In his 1966 book, Toward a Theory of Instruction, Bruner outlined the structure of the course as follows:

> The content of the course is man: his nature as a species, the forces that shaped and continue to shape his humanity. Three questions recur throughout:
> What is human about human beings?
> How did they get that way?
> How can they be made more so?
> We seek exercises and materials through which our pupils can learn wherein man is distinctive in his adaptation to the world, and wherein there is discernible continuity between him and his animal forebears. For man represents that crucial point in evolution where adaptation is achieved by the vehicle of culture, and only in a minor way by further changes in his morphology.[1]

And in elaboration of this he states:

> In pursuit of our question we proceed to explore five subjects, each closely associated with the evolution of man as a species, each defining at once the distinctiveness of man and his potentiality for further evolution. The five great humanizing forces are tool making, language, social organization, the management of man's prolonged childhood, and man's urge to explain his world.[2]

From this basis "Man" began to emerge. With grants from the National Science Foundation and the Ford Foundation, the Social Studies Curriculum Program of Education Development Center, Inc., at Cambridge, under the direction of Peter Dow, began work. Consulting scholars Irven DeVore, Harvard primatologist, and Asen Balekei, anthropologist at the University of Montreal, provided academic expertise and led filming expeditions to Africa and the Artic respectively.

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[1]Bruner, J. S. Toward a Theory of Instruction (W. W. Norton and Company, New York 1968, 1966), p. 74.

[2]Ibid., p. 75.

"Man" has essentially two major aims. "First. . . . to stimulate children to think about the nature of man by providing them with interesting studies of animal behavior and human groups taken from recent work in the behavioral sciences and anthropology."[1] It is hoped that ". . . these studies will provoke students to reexamine what they think they know about themselves and about human beings generally. By comparing man to other animals and by studying man in a cultural setting different from our own, they may reflect upon the deep structure of human experience, the common impulses and ways of coping with life which unite man as a species beneath the surface diversity of culture, and the biological ties that unite man with other living creatures."[2]

Second, it is hoped that ". . . this course will awaken in children an awareness of the fact that what we regard as acceptable behavior is a product of our culture. In judging others, particularly those of different cultures, children must learn to know when their judgments, and the judgments of all men, are shaped by the culture in which they live."[3]

The specific instrumental or pedagogical aims of the course that are intended to develop children's conceptual understanding and personal self-confidence are:

1. To initiate and develop in youngsters a process of question-posing (the inquiry method);

2. To teach a research methodology where children can:

    a. Look for information to answer questions they have raised
    b. Use the framework developed in the course (e.g. the concept of the life cycle) and apply it to new areas;

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[1] MACOS One. Talks to Teachers, p. 6.

[2] Ibid., p. 6.

[3] Ibid., pp. 6-7.

3. To help youngsters to develop the ability to use a variety of first-hand sources as evidence from which to develop hypotheses and draw conclusions;

4. To conduct classroom discussions in which youngsters learn to listen to others as well as to express their own views;

5. To legitimize the search; that is, to give sanction and support to open-ended discussions where definitive answers to many questions are not found;

6. To encourage children to reflect on their own experiences;

7. To create a new role for the teacher, in which the teacher becomes a resource to children, rather than only an authority.[1]

The test of any program, however, is not in the formulation of laudable end goals, but rather in providing appropriate means for reaching them. As Bruner states it they have ". . . used every means to get kids to see what it means to be human." (They have brought together) "the marvelous mix of a gifted teacher, a gifted investigator, a gifted film maker, a gifted poet to bring these people together to do something for kids."[2]

DESCRIPTION OF MATERIALS

MACOS utilizes virtually every type of material and pedagogical technique now available in education. The basic means are the films which comprise a total of six hours on sixteen titles. They are eight mm sound films which keep narration to a minimum, relying mostly on natural sounds

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[1]Hanley, Janet P., Dean K. Whitla, Eunice W. Moo and Arleen S. Walter, A Summary Report, Curiosity, Competence, Community, An Evaluation of Man: A Course of Study (Education Development Center, Inc., Cambridge, 1970), pp. 1-5-6.

[2]"A Time for Learning," film (Education Development Center, Cambridge).

in the environment. For example, Irven DeVore made some 40,000 feet of film on baboon troops in Nairobi and Amboselli-Game Parks and Asen Balekei shot 180,000 feet of film on three separate expeditions to the Artic.

These films are used in conjunction with twenty-nine student booklets which provide information on the basic concepts and themes of the course. These booklets are illustrated with diagrams and drawings which facilitate student understanding. The course also utilizes two twelve-inch records, two seven-inch records, five filmstrips, twenty-three maps, posters and photomurals. In addition are three educational games including a seal hunt game and a caribou hunt game.

The course also provides nine teachers' guides with background information, bibliography, suggested lesson plans and strategies for evaluation. During the course students engage in much group work, construction activities, and role playing.[1]

But a course of study is more than the sum total of its parts. The outstanding feature of MACOS is the internal consistency and cohesion of the course itself and the materials. All of the components fit and serve a purpose. MACOS is also distinguished by the fact that EDC and the present course disseminator, Curriculum Development Associates, require a teacher training program for teachers using the course.

The "fit" between the component parts of MACOS comes from the logical progression of the course towards elucidating and clarifying concepts and ideas which contribute to achieving the course goals. The three recurring questions:

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[1]All materials for the course are available from Curriculum Development Association, Suite 414, 1211 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, D. C.

What is human about human beings?

How did they get that way?

How can they be made more so?

and the five great humanizing forces:

tool making

language

social organization

the management of man's prolonged childhood

man's urge to explain his world

serve to unify specific concepts throughout the course. The first major theme to emerge in the study of man is the notion of life cycle. The students study the life cycle of the salmon and discover that the parents of salmon die before their offspring hatch. There is no period of dependency on the parents. Of 6,000 eggs laid by each female salmon, only two salmon will survive to return to the same stream some five years later. The students inquire into the relationship between innate and learned behaviors. The students begin to realize that learning is a principal activity of man.

The herring gull is studied next. By contrast, the herring gull has a longer period of dependency. Some of his behaviors are innate, such as pecking the red spot on the beak of its parent to make the parent regurgitate food for it to eat. But it has to learn to eat it quickly or the parent will eat it again. The herring gull study raises questions about the function of parents. Other concepts come to play in the study of the herring gull, such as the concept of territoriality. The students spend approximately 17 days examining herring gull behavior.

Next they study chimpanzees and especially baboons. Here they begin to learn more about social organization and tool making. As Bruner

notes, the "ultimate object in teaching about tools is . . . not so much to explicate tools and their significance as to explore how tools affected man's evolution and still affect his life."[1] In studying social organization students become aware that there is structure in a society and that this structure is not fixed once for all. In studying a baboon troop students get an understanding of the concept of dominance--something they already have experience with. Baboon study takes about 30 days of the course.

Throughout the course concepts introduced earlier are reinforced and elaborated upon. Always they are background for understanding the subtleties of primate and especially human behavior.

The Netsilik unit comes last. Many of the questions raised earlier are refocussed as students study a human society quite different from their own. The Netsilik provide a contrast with subhuman social organization and our own. The Netsilik society does not have elaborate power structures and social hierarchies. The primary aim in the Netsilik unit is to illustrate man's capacity to symbolize. A baboon can experience danger and learn by experience to cope with it, but no baboon can think about the idea of danger and invent new ways to deal with it. Students learn that this man-made world is what we call our "culture."

One of the more interesting and unusual features of "MAN" is a beginning exploration of the concept of a world view. This section of the Netsilik unit is concerned with man's drive to explain and represent his world. It deals with myth, art, and primitive legend. Students read stories and hear recorded legends such as the "Legend of Nuliajuk," which

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[1]Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction, p. 82.

explains the origins of seals to the Eskimos.

Throughout the course two closely related themes arise: The idea that a structure can be understood in terms of its function, and the concept of adaptation--the notion that an organism responds to its environment in ways that tend to promote its survival.

PEDAGOGY OF THE COURSE

The pedagogy of MACOS is at odds with the traditional conception of social studies teaching that we should begin by presenting the familiar world of home, the street, and the neighborhood. As Bruner notes, "It is a thoroughly commendable ideal; its only fault is its failure to recognize how difficult it is for human beings to see generality in what has become familiar."[1]

The course relies principally upon four pedagogical techniques.[2] The first of these is contrast--how contrast is used should be apparent from the presentation thus far. The second is stimulation and use of informed guessing, hypothesis making, and conjectural procedures. The third is participation. Again, the earlier discussion of course materials and teaching procedures should make this point clear. The fourth is stimulating self-consciousness, by which is meant the belief that there is a learnable strategy for discovering one's unspoken notions--one's unstated ways of approaching things.

SPECIFIC ILLUSTRATIONS OF LESSONS FROM MACOS

Baboons[3]

Prior to this lesson students will have examined the baboon's

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[1] Ibid., p. 93.

[2] For a detailed consideration of the pedagogy see Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction.

[3] Summarized from Teachers' No. 5, Baboons, MAN: A COURSE OF STUDY, pp. 32-33.

environment and noted that the baboons share their environment with many other animals. They will have seen the film, "Animals in Amboselli," where they see lions, cheetahs, gazelles, elephants, zebras, gnus and other animals and study some of the interactions among the animals. They will have read the booklet, Animals of the African Savanna. Leading into the study of baboons they will see the filmstrip "Baboons" and read the booklet, Baboons and the Observers Handbook. In this work they will raise questions about the implications of troop living. In further study they will watch two short films on younger and older baboon infants. In this study they note the helplessness of young baboons. They will also see affection between a mother and her offspring.

After this period of observing the behavior of baboons they have gathered sufficient information to consider the cohesiveness of the baboon troop.

Lesson Topic--The Troop: Affectional Bonds and Dominance

Film : "The Baboon Troop" (22 minutes)

The children should begin to see the adaptive significance of baboon troop life. Some animals spend most of their lives alone (leopards, for example). Others cannot survive alone and are always found in groups. The baboon is a group-living animal; it is adapted to survive in a group and through a group. (Man, too, is a group-living animal; he usually enjoys and benefits from the company of others.)

What is the advantage to baboons of living in troops? A lone baboon would be completely vulnerable to outside dangers. The relatively small size of the female and the helplessness of the infant make it necessary for the males to protect other troop members if the infants are to survive.

We can see that it is an advantage for baboons to be in troops. But what keeps them together?

Two bonds are particularly strong: The powerful males are attractive to other troop members, and the females with infants are the most attractive to the powerful males and are more often near them than other troop members are. There is also another bond that seems to tie the troop together. During quiet times of the day, an old female is often surrounded by baboons of different ages. Observers believe that these are her offspring. There appear to be lasting affectional bonds between the old females and their offspring.

Troop living presents some problems. With many baboons all together, infants growing and playing, males often expressing aggression, how is peace kept within the troop? What determines when a troop will set out in the morning to cross the grasslands and what direction it will take? What happens when there is danger? How can action be taken quickly when a whole troop of baboons is involved?

These problems lead into a study of dominance, the basic ordering principle of the troop. Peace is kept within the troop because each baboon has a place in the dominance hierarchy, and although this place may change gradually, it is always recognized by others in the troop. The strong, powerful males who are able to cooperate with each other are the real leaders of the troop. In a troop of forty, perhaps three or four males would make up this "central group" of leaders. (Notice that these may not be individually dominant over all other members of the troop; one male may be stronger and more aggressive than all of the others, but unless he is able to cooperate with them, he will not become part of the leadership group. He will be subordinate to the combination of the other strong males in the troop who <u>are</u> able to cooperate.)

The film, "The Baboon Troop," and the booklet The Baboon Troop develop the ideas mentioned here. The film can be stopped at several points and discussed.

Lesson Topic--"Observing Life at a Fish Camp"[1]

Film: "Fishing at the Stone Weir" (22 minutes)

In the film, "Fishing at the Stone Weir," many aspects of human life (family relationships, play, learning, technology) blend together to form two days of life in a Netsilik camp. During the unit these aspects are isolated and analyzed; the films, in contrast, attempt to show the continuity of the people's lives.

Before showing this segment of the film, divide the children into five groups and ask each group to watch for one of the following:

how the Netsilik are getting food

how they are caring for their young

what things men are doing

what things the woman is doing

what things the boy is doing
(notice especially his playing).

Introduce the Eskimo family to the children: Umiapik, the boy; Kingnuk, his mother; Itimangnark, his father.

Many of the activities the people in the film engage in are clear to us without further explanation; they are closely related to our own activities. We see the people erect a tent for shelter, repair the fish trap, catch, clean and eat fish, and entertain one another. Other scenes

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[1]MACOS, Teachers' Guide #6, "The Netsilik Eskimos at the Inland Camps," (EDC, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Pilot Edition, 1968), pp. 11-15.

are not as clear. We must know more about the people and their thoughts to understand what they are doing.

Both Kingnuk and Itimangnark do many things that derive meaning from the symbolic world of the Netsilik. We cannot understand these behaviors without exploring the inner world of the Netsilik. Kingnuk braids her hair onto a stock to show by the colors of the binding strips that she has a son. She covers the eyes of the fish with ashes to ensure future good fishing. Itimangnark repairs his tools some distance from the fishing site, so he will not anger the spirits of his cosmos. To find the reasons for these behaviors, the children can read the last page of the chapter, "The Ancient Rules of Life," in This World We Know.

> Why do the Netsilik follow these rules?
>
> How would they feel if they did not do what the rules required?
>
> From what you have observed in the film and heard on the record, what other things do you think the Netsilik might care about?

These two sample lessons provide only a brief taste of "MAN." The interested teacher will want to examine a sample set of the materials, in conjunction if possible with a viewing of the films which are the "backbone" of the course.

CRITICISMS OF "MAN: A COURSE OF STUDY"

While just barely out of the pilot stage, MACOS has attracted critics as well as proponents. Jerome Bruner, "MAN: A COURSE OF STUDY," and the whole Brunerian stance has been criticized by Richard M. Jones in his book, Fantasy and Feeling in Education.[1] As one would expect from

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[1]Jones, Richard M. Fantasy and Feeling in Education (Harper Colophon Books, Harper and Row Publishers, New York, 1968).

the title of his work, the substance of Jones' criticisms is based on the conceptual basis of MACOS and what Jones believes is an overemphasis on cognitive development and the neglect of emotional and imaginative development.

Richard Bumstead, in an assessment of MACOS which appeared in the September, 1970, issue of Educate,[1] doubts that students or teachers are grasping the main concepts and ideas of the course and feels that the course has also failed to achieve its inquiry goals.

"MAN" is receiving close scrutiny, as it should. Some four million dollars ($4,000,000) were spent in the development of the course. It may be that the above criticisms are justified, and it is likely there will be others as the course is more widely distributed. While we are professionally obligated to critique new curricular endeavors, in the opinion of this writer, MACOS is a vast improvement over the content and methodology found in the vast majority of fifth and sixth grade classrooms.

Working as I do, with prospective teachers and experienced teachers in social studies methodology and curriculum, I have come to realize that curricular change takes place slowly and in small gains. As I studied MACOS, I became intrigued with the internal cohesion and consistency of the course. It really does all hang together. And, in my opinion, it can result in substantial change--not just in fifth or sixth grade classes--but throughout all the grades which follow. So, while MACOS, as any course of study, has deficiencies and problems, I

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[1]Bumstead, Richard. "Man: A Course of Study," Educate, September, 1970, Vol. 3, No. 4, pp. 20-29.

think that through implementation of courses such as this we can have substantial impact in updating education.

CHAPTER XIX

TEACHING FOR VALUES CLARIFICATION AND COMMITMENT

By Prudence Dyer

Historically the development of personal values "like ours" has been an expected function of the school. Implicit in the citizen's support of any school or university or a factor in his vote for a bond or school board election is the assumption that the school or candidates are striving to stress values important to him as an individual supporter or voter.

So, tensions in society persist between two concerns: (1) preserving the values of the culture, and (2) accommodating changes and technological advances of the present and future. These continuing tensions challenge the schools to reexamine their basic philosophies and objectives in order to define their role either in reflecting or in shaping the values of society.

Even with all the concern, there have been few ways developed for effectively recording and analyzing values held by individuals, groups, and schools. There have been few ways also of examining values held by groups through the several ages represented in the school population, or

of analyzing how these values have been expressed -- or

of confronting values-laden decisions -- or

of clarifying personal values -- or

of deciding upon a personal value commitment.

"Values," as used in this discussion, are defined as those statements of preference or intent which seem to guide or govern the behavior of the individual or the policies of an institution.

Most of the new humanities courses and programs in the schools confront problems of values, as do many social studies and English programs. Such courses and programs generally have grown around the strengths and concerns of particular teachers or teams of teachers. Throughout these following discussions we will emphasize humanities as an integrative course or program which encompasses the social studies as well as the arts.

Course structures in the humanities vary, but generally follow one of five basic patterns. The Culture Epoch approach concentrates on great periods of man's development when he seems to synthesize the efforts of the past or to enter a new transitional period of development. As a framework for the study of man, this approach goes beyond the attention to political and economic history and examines man's artistic and social achievements in a particular period of time, such as the Golden Age of Greece, the Renaissance, or Post Modern Man. A danger is that highlighting of some eras may render other equally brilliant ones into dark ages.

The approach through the Great Ideas focuses study upon ideas as they have appeared and reappeared through the ages: Ideas of revolution, justice, power, and law. Ideally, this approach is limited by neither time nor locale. In actuality, however, many Great Ideas courses touch primarily on ideas of the Western world as they have appeared in literature.

American Studies courses emphasize the forces shaping diverse peoples into a single nation, and consider the arts, institutions, and ideas which form the national character. The limitations of this structure lie within the provincial nature of the design. As a base for the student's understanding of himself and his own specific heritage, the study is appropriate. As the end of humanities study, it is inadequate in its lack of concern for the one world and the one-ness of man's experiences.

World Culture Studies, like American Studies, consider the factors contributing to the kinds of civilization and culture found in regions beyond the United States. This framework could have weaknesses similar to those found in American Studies programs if the class stays within the nationalistic point of view.

The Aesthetic Structure plan focuses upon the form, design, composition, structure, and other conventions of particular art forms. Teachers using care to enable students to find unifying and interrelating structure within the arts overcome the weakness of a sterile study which concentrates primarily upon form without reference to or regard for meaning.

Values and/or Concerns of Man as the unifying forces in the study of the Humanities offer a powerful structure for study. Values and concerns literally explode from the expressions of man, whether sophisticated or naive, classic or contemporary, old or young. Values and concerns burst from television or motion picture screen, from the library shelf or the corner newsstand; from the symphony hall or the cellar coffee shop; from the art gallery or the latest pop recording. These are the media engulfing the young. Weaknesses of utilizing this approach become apparent if the study is organized in a random or haphazard fashion. This approach, however, capitalizes on the issues absorbing the interests and concerns of the students. It is the approach we shall discuss as the setting for values clarification and commitment.

The study of the humanities -- however this study is organized -- encompasses the concerns of mankind and the means of expressing or resolving these concerns through the arts, institutions, and inter-personal relationships. Such a study must embody skills essential for understanding and interpretation as well as those necessary for creation and communication.

The study or process must also consider each student as one man, so that his motivations, his concept of self and others, his pressures, his exemplars, his value commitments, and his creative expressions can find studio, forum, or laboratory for study and analysis.

Can all these concerns and goals be accomplished in one semester's course? In a one year's course? In a single discipline course? Or must the schools consider integrating many of the currently discrete segments in their total curriculum? These are questions each school must face and resolve for itself as it seeks its own encounter with values.

Numerous researchers, psychologists, philosophers, and educators have studied some aspect of values in recent years. The question of defining values -- or clarifying them -- has interested philosophers for years. Some persons have attempted to break values down into such spheres as moral, aesthetic, economic, political, religious, practical. Some have studied them in terms of attitudes toward social institutions. Others have observed shifts, transformations, and conflicts in values.

The difficult task of measuring values has challenged many researchers. Several versions of forced-choice scales have been developed to attempt the measurement of values. These have been utilized with adults, young persons, and even pre-schoolers. Most of these formal measuring devices have been paper and pencil tests presenting to students opportunities to evaluate the effects of alternative value choices. Students must rely upon their verbal skills to interpret the author's vocabulary and intent.

Psychologists, anthropologists, educators, and journalists have studied and reported the value patterns of children and adults. Studies support the folk wisdom -- that a child's values are influenced by home, parents, peers, and school.

How valid are all these studies for the rapidly changing Seventies? Is there a reliable and valid way of analyzing even the <u>expressed values</u>

of children? Of youth? Of adults?

Although values held by children and youth have been studied extensively through "tests" or observation, there have been few ways of studying values expressed in discussion, writing, or overt behaving. Because paper and pencil tests pose problems in validity,[1] Dyer developed and validated a rubric for recording expressed values of students and schools. In a small feasibility study she compared the values expressed by the schools through their publications and by the students through their writing[2] and found that in the schools studied the values of ninth grade students most nearly resembled those held by the schools. Younger students in this sample expressed more emergent values than those held by the schools and older students expressed more traditional values than those recorded for the schools!

Dyer conducted a small feasibility study to determine what proportion of children's values expressed over a seven-year period could be characterized as static or dynamic and what dominant value patterns emerged in which years. The sample selected and the data they yielded do indeed support the hypothesis of change. Further studies are anticipated with these and additional papers on file, as well as with additional papers yet to be collected from this school district in the next five years. Further studies will include the following investigations, some of which are now under way:

(1) the study of one grade level for the several-year span to

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[1]Dyer, Prudence. "An Encounter: Humanities and values." Bulletin of Research in Humanities Education 1; 11. 12. Spring, 1970.

[2]Dyer, Prudence. Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin.

determine whether or not differences occur in expressed values in relation to events of the time, the topic chosen, or the particular groupings (multi-graded/non-graded, etc.),

(2) what ideas were most expressed by students either on one topic or by the entire group on a range of topics,

(3) whether or not there is a relationship in the larger population between the variables of expressed values and those of creativeness, competency, sex, motivation, etc.

Research which gauges institutional or societal values follows designs developed for sociological studies. Case studies, journal documentaries, narrative and expository essays augment the statistical studies found in the books and journals of the profession. Few models appear appropriate, however, for the simple and objective analysis of the values of a particular school or groups of schools, beyond the evaluative criteria of the accrediting associations or other similar self-study guides.

There are several techniques and designs for including value considerations in the classroom. The New England Primer included moral preachments in every verse. The McGuffey readers were characterized by moral tags at the end of most selections. Sophisticated contemporary authors dropped those devices in favor of objectivity -- their value. A number of contemporary educators, committed to doing something positive about values formation, have re-introduced procedures for including consideration of value choices in the classroom.

He will be

(a) designer of his own ethical behavior based on values expressed and analyzed in writing and discussing
(b) sensitive to each individual's expression of his ideas -- not only of recognized masters, but also of his own and of her peers

He will become

(a) a reader, listener and participant in a variety of leisure activities
(b) a committed member of his chosen vocation
(c) a constructive critic of media, arts, institutions and practices of his community
(d) a designer of creative ways to use working and leisure time for self renewal
(e) a volunteer or advocate for causes and purposes he professes in his community, nation, and world.

Objectives grow from commitment of teachers for the development of students toward their full potentialities. These broad objectives form a base for the structure and sequence of a course or a twelve-year program in the consideration and clarification of values through the humanities.

Sequence in humanities programs may be developed, beginning at the elementary, junior, or senior high levels, with studies organized around great ideas, aesthetic form or structure, historic periods, regional studies, or perennial and changing values. Programs might utilize aspects of several approaches within a year or a three-year or a twelve-year period. The programs will depend on the school's objectives for study in the humanities.

As a part of the sequencing the teacher should allow the child "practice in both leaping and plodding, for without the experience of guessing, the child is deprived of his rights of mind."[3] Perhaps the real and criminal discrimination in the schools occurs as teachers plod through the years with dulling procedures: Read, recite, review, and recite again; or sing, sing, sing, in the same routine again; or color, copy, or underline the same forms again. And discrimination occurs as teachers fail to allow

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[3]Bruner, Jerome. "Needed: A Theory of Instruction," Educational Leadership, May 1963, pp. 523-532.

for variety in work or for cognitive or affective leaping. And discrimination occurs again as teachers fail to provide for unifying experiences in the humanities, or for time to revisit and enjoy something afresh as taste is developing. The compulsion to "cover" the text, the course, of study, the arts, or MAN, is a compulsion which should be extinguished.

The problem of how values are taught and learned concerned the editors of a leading educational journal. They had been perplexed about the assassinations, riots, and violence of the past few years and had observed that as a nation "we" had been successful in teaching the young to hate. One beautiful issue, therefore, was devoted to teaching the young to love.[4] It included the work of creative artists and writers Leo Tolstoy, Antoine St. Exupery, Eldridge Cleaver, photographer Carl Mydans, psychiatrists Hugh Missildine and Karl Menninger, scholars and educators such as Teilhard de Chardin, Will and Ariel Durant, George Wald, Loren Eisely, Louise Berman and many others. It is a remarkable blend of ideas and inspiration, concern and challenge, theory and practice.

Discussion, role-playing, psycho-drama, or puppetry provide media through which students can encounter values conflicts or decisions within the classroom. Massialas and Zevin have transcribed some such encounters and have suggested others in Creative Encounters in the Classroom.[5]

An alert teacher finds almost daily examples from the press or other media or from life in the school, community, or world, which he can bring to his class for their encounter with values.

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[4]Frymier, Jack R., ed. Theory Into Practice, 8. April, 1969.

[5]Massialas, Byron G. and Jack Zevin, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967.

Responses can be oral or written in individual or group situations, or played out in drama. Recordings, tapes, or compositions can be analyzed for stability or change on the Rubric for Expressed Values. (Or REV can be used by trained observers in a manner similar to that employed by users of VICS.)

Films, too, provide powerful springboards for value-laden essays, discussions or socio-drama. Home of the Brave, a brief film flicking to tom-tom beats, shows alternating pictures of Washington, Tecumseh, Jackson, Sequoiah, Pioneer Woman, Crazy Horse, World War II G.I., Sioux Warriors, Custer, Maria the potter, and many others. Interpretations of viewers vary as they consider their own perception of whose Home this is and who are the Brave. Other films posing values conflicts are in plentiful supply.

Change or stability in values comes through specific commitment to a specific course of action. Commitment is, of course, an expected concomitant of values clarification. Each case exercise a teacher might design from news stories, films, or local concerns, could be followed with a call for commitment to some specific course of action. One way of communicating this commitment is through student-made films. Now much in vogue, these generally speak in strong values-statements and reveal a committed crew of researchers, writers, photographers, producers, directors (and teachers).

Many notable examples of values commitment have occurred in our very recent memories, many outside the classrooms of our schools and universities.

> Civil Rights sit-ins, marches, teach-ins, -- commitments to a new order, at whatever price.
>
> "The Children's Crusade" for Eugene McCarthy -- a commitment for change from a policy of war.

The Earth Day teach-ins -- commitments to education and stewardship for environmental concerns

Nader's Raiders -- a commitment to the little guy -- the consumer.

And many more. Most are sparked with controversy as established values connect with shock waves of change.

Some of the committed may be youth ahead of their times, but that is the risk we run when we teach the young to value -- to value and to commit themselves to the fulfillment of self and to service to others and to the world.

Through such risk-taking with established values have come the greatest achievements of the ages -- the fulfillment of wise and possible dreams.

CHAPTER XX

INVESTIGATING MAN'S WORLD: A NEW SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

By Clyde F. Kohn

One of the tasks we must set for ourselves in education is responsible evaluation of the new social studies programs in terms of their impact on instruction in coming years. We must base such evaluation on criteria which can be applied objectively to all new social studies programs, whether they are developed by commercial firms or sponsored with federal money. Seven criteria are advanced in this paper. Of course they reflect certain personal value systems and assumptions concerning a social studies program. These values and assumptions appear, however, to have widespread support within the teaching profession. The criteria are:

1. Is the program structured in terms of more than one social science discipline; that is, is the program multi-disciplinary?

2. Is the program conceptually-structured, rather than factually oriented?

3. Is the program inquiry-oriented, calling for analytical, integrative, and decision-making thought structures?

4. Does the program deal with persistent social problems in an unbiased manner?

5. Is the program adapted to the developmental level of the learner, and related to his needs and interests?

6. Does the program stress the development of values and behavior traits that are both personally and socially acceptable?

7. Does the program help learners relate effectively to the many communities of which they are a part -- local, state, national, international, and worldwide?

Let us apply these criteria to the program which has been developed by the authors and editors of Investigating Man's World (IMW), a social studies program for elementary school students, developed and published under the auspices of Scott, Foresman and Company. This program is designed to help elementary students develop systematic ways of thinking about and studying the world in which they live, by applying the structures and key concepts of the several social science disciplines to finding solutions to social problems as they develop. Its purpose is to help children generate patterns of thought and analysis that they can use in a lifetime of work, leisure, and citizenship.

1. Is the IMW Program Multi-Disciplinary?

No one social studies discipline--history, geography, anthropology, economics, political science, or sociology--offers all of the tools or experiences children need to find solutions to social problems, but, by using a variety of disciplines, children can learn how to investigate social issues. IMW textual materials are structured in terms of all the social sciences. Primary grade children investigate their home, school, neighborhood, and metropolitan communities from several disciplinary points of view. They learn that these communities need to be investigated in terms of their ethnic composition, spoken and written languages, and cultures (anthropology). They also learn that every society and every individual is faced with a conflict between unlimited wants and limited resources (economics). They study the natural environment of their home, school, and city, and how man uses the land in their communities (human geography). In other lessons, children explore the development of their families, school, or city by investigating the inevitability of change, the continuity of human experience, and cause-and-effect relationships (history). They simulate political

scientists by learning about laws, processes, and the structure and functions of governments; and as sociologists, they study human societies, social institutions, and causes and effects of cultural change.

By studying human phenomena from different disciplinary points of view, children begin to learn that few things in the world regarding people, social issues, or the communities of which they are members are simple. They discover that many economic problems are also political problems, and that many political problems are also social problems. As children learn about these complicated relationships, they begin to realize the importance of the social science disciplines as fields of research and as working professions.

2. Is the IMW Program Conceptually Structured?

There are two schools of thought concerning the question: "What knowledge, understanding, and skills in social affairs and relationships ought a young citizen have when he has completed his basic education?"

Many teachers believe that, in geography, for example, children should be taught the location, surface conditions, climate, plant and animal life, natural resources, population, cities, products and occupations of the major nations of the world, of regions within their own nation, and of the particular state and locality in which they live.

Other educators believe it is more important for a student to have some general understanding of the distribution of natural and cultural phenomena, of their associations over space, and of the spatial factors that are involved in human activities. A growing segment of the education profession believes that effective programs in social studies should be conceptually-oriented rather than factually-oriented. With the aid of meaningful concepts, models can be established against which actual events, institutions, trends, and problems not only now but in

the past and in the future, can be analyzed and understood. To be sure, in analyzing social issues, facts are necessary; so too is the careful checking of facts. But, knowing the facts of a specific incident or place is not enough. Rather, students need to develop concepts and acquire techniques to help them analyze, interpret, and judge any similar or comparable combination of human social facts with which they might be confronted in the years to come.

The IMW social studies program has been designed on the principle that the key to knowledge, understanding, and acceptable behavior lies in the structure and concepts of the social studies disciplines. IMW is, therefore, a conceptually-structured, rather than factually-oriented, program. IMW asks children to investigate relevant social issues of the communities of which they are members, in terms of these key concepts of anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, and sociology.

3. Is the IMW Program Inquiry-Oriented?

Much is said today about the need for social studies programs to be inquiry- or analytically-oriented. What is meant by such an orientation? Basically, it means that a program has been structured in such a way that children learn problem-solving methods of inquiry. Such programs move away from a sheer expository teaching strategy towards one of provocative guided discovery.

An inquiry program in the social studies should aim to develop in learners the following abilities and skills:

a. The ability to state a problem clearly and succinctly.

b. The ability to gather data, by observation, from tables, maps, charts, diagrams, and textual materials.

c. The ability to define terms and to classify data as demanded by the problem under consideration.

d. The ability to compare and contrast.

e. The ability to relate, coordinate, and integrate ideas by making generalizations and inferences from the data collected.

f. The ability to judge, to decide, to set policies based on the generalizations and inferences developed from the analysis.

The IMW program has been designed to help young people develop these abilities, these patterns of thought and inquiry that will be useful to them in new situations. They are encouraged to state problems; to use the text, maps, pictures, documents, charts, graphs and statistics to gether necessary facts; to group these facts into meaningful categories. They are then guided in relating, coordinating, integrating, or synthesizing their new experiences, their new knowledge, and their new understanding with previous knowledge and experiences. Children are confronted with real life problems and situations that require them to examine their own value systems and to make decisions.

4. Does the IMW Program Deal with Persistent Social Problems Without Bias?

A meaningful program of study should deal with social problems that are persistent over time and space. What are some of these?

Man, throughout time and in all parts of the world, has been confronted with almost unlimited wants, but there are only limited resources with which to satisfy these wants. This condition will undoubtedly continue to exist as long as man inhabits the earth. Hence, the problem of allocating scarce resources to satisfy wants is a persistent problem. As new wants arise, new ways must be found to reallocate scarce resources.

Another persistent life problem is the proper management of our environment, an ecological problem. Every major technological or scientific advancement of mankind results in a re-evaluation of the amount and quality of our land, water and air resources. We are discovering painfully that we need sound environmental planning in order to maintain and enhance economic progress while preserving suitable environmental conditions in which to live. Learning experiences need to be provided at all grade levels to enable children to develop the understandings, abilities, and skills to improve the relations between environment and man.

Other persistent life problems include the ability to live in peace with one another, to develop just rules and regulations, to help individuals develop to the best of their ability, to move goods and people quickly and quietly without danger to life or property, and to rid the earth of poverty and social injustice.

The IMW program for the social studies attempts to deal with major social, political and economic problems that appear to be persistent in the many communities of which we are members. Learners are given opportunities to investigate how people have tried to solve these problems in the past, how people from place to place on the earth's surface have developed different solutions to similar problems, and what factors must be considered to solve comparable problems as they arise in the future.

5. Is the IMW Program Adapted to the Development of the Learner?

No program, however well structured in terms of concepts and inquiry-oriented skills, can be successful if it reaches beyond the ability of the learner to understand. A suitable program is one that offers a means for developing learning experiences for children of differing needs and abilities. Every child needs to be challenged, and every child needs to

experience success.

The IMW program has attempted to adjust learning activities to the maturation of individual learners in a number of ways: By choice of setting, by pictures and discussion questions designed to focus the learner's attention on the subject matter of the lesson, and by structuring discussion to the inductive approach. The questions in the text are planned so that pupils will automatically interpret pictures first, then the text, then return to a discussion of ideas that lead to the situation being considered. The major emphasis in every discussion is geared to the child's familiarity with the community being studied. Each pupil is led to associate the new information or understanding within his own local community; that is, in terms of his own experience. Furthermore, the teacher may handle the text in various ways, depending on the reading level of his class. He may wish to have three or four children participate in reading the section aloud; he may ask pupils to read the section silently; or he himself may do some of the reading. In any arrangement, the discussion questions counteract any problem that might arise for the slow reader.

Finally, the activities are divided into three sections--for the average learner, the more mature learner, and the less mature learner. All activities are developmental, for it is through them that progress is made toward achieving the unit objectives. Most of the activities are expressional and open-ended in the sense that children are asked to express in some way what they have learned through the day's discussion and inquiry.

6. Does the IMW Program Stress the Development of Values and Behavioral Traits that are Both Personally and Socially Acceptable?

No matter what the mental development of the child, he is constantly developing a set of values which will guide his behavior now and

in the future. It is important, therefore, that new social studies programs include not only cognitive but also affectively-oriented objectives and learning experiences.

The authors and editors of the IMW Program believe that learning should be a matter of discovering personal meaning. The textual material, therefore, is concerned with the beliefs, attitudes, feelings, and values of the student. Through activities, students are encouraged to express their beliefs, values and attitudes without fear of criticism or ridicule. They are led to discover and examine alternatives to issues, to interact with each other, to discover that there is more than one point of view, and to consider what it is they really value. Attempts are made to develop a sense of morality regarding such ideas as justice, honesty, and trust.

7. Does the IMW Program Help Learners Relate to the Many Communities of Which They are a Part?

Every individual is a member of many communities, ranging from his family, through local neighborhood, metropolitan area, state, and nation, to the world community. Students from kindergarten through high school need to learn how to function effectively in each of these communities.

The IMW Program encourages children to study all the communities of which they are members. It encourages children to investigate these not only in terms of their own value systems, but in terms of the value systems held by peoples throughout the world. For example, once the learner acquires the abilities and skills needed to investigate his own national community, he is taught how to apply these abilities and skills to the study of other nations. Likewise, once he has acquired the necessary concepts, abilities and skills to study an international community, such as the Atlantic Community, he is led to apply these abilities and concepts to the study of other international communities of which he and others

throughout the world are a part.

In this fashion the authors and editors of the IMW Program hope that children will become better able to participate in the solution of social problems, whether they are local, metropolitan, state, national, or international in scope, and that they will do so in a rational manner and without bias.

Demonstration of IMW Program

To demonstrate the philosophy, principles, and axioms expressed above, a series of lessons designed for third grade pupils investigating their metropolitan community may be presented in the following manner.

Most certainly, slums are one of the biggest problems of our urban societies. To help students learn how to investigate slum conditions, as discussed in the text, Metropolitan Studies, the following learning activities might be initiated:

Lesson One: Have students study pictures in text and discuss what they observe about the residential neighborhoods and houses. (Undoubtedly they will suggest that the pictures indicate poverty, run-down housing, crowded living, dirtiness, health problems, inadequate community services such as garbage collection and street repair, fire hazards, possibly crime, poor environment in which to live, etc.) Then introduce the term slum to indicate neighborhoods of this kind. Have students read text to see whether their list is complete.

Lesson Two: A bus trip might be planned to observe slum conditions in the students' local or metropolitan region. Have

them note on a map where they observe slum conditions. This will help to develop map-making and map-reading skills.

Lesson Three: Discuss conditions observed on field trip. Note the location of slums that were observed. Some will have been seen near the central business district; others near industrial areas; still others near routes of transportation, especially railroads. There will be other locations. Elicit the question: Where do slums tend to develop within a city, and why there?

Lesson Four: Have students read silently, or read to the class, depending on ability of students to read. After reading from text, discuss why slums develop where they do. Note the attitude of certain owners to the development of slums.

Lesson Five: On the basis of the previous lesson, develop the meaning of immigrant. To help students understand why people live in slums, a simple matrix might be developed as follows:

	Permanent Residents	Temporary Residents
Of Necessity	Social Outcasts (Criminals)	Immigrants (Ethnic Group) Racial Groups
To Take Advantage of Opportunities	Fugitives	Workers Who Later Move to Other Areas

Discuss categories in terms of local situation.

Lesson Six: Set the problem, "Why have the problems of slums not been solved?" Have an open-ended discussion of this problem. The objective is to have students examine their own values and attitudes toward slum conditions and toward people who live in slums, especially those confined there by necessity. Attitudes toward poverty can be examined. Identify and discuss value systems about poverty as they are evidenced in the discussion.

Lesson Seven: Open discussion, following reading in text, on what urban societies can do about problems of poverty and slums. Develop the generalization that slums are a problem for all the people who live in a metropolitan area.

Lesson Eight: Invite a businessman in to discuss resolutions to the problems of poverty and slums.

Lesson Nine: If possible, visit your local planning agency to see what your city government is doing to solve the problems of poverty and slums. Introduce the concepts of urban renewal and rehabilitation.

To evaluate the students' understanding of slums, have them study picture in text. Ask them to write an essay on what they think caused the neighborhood pictured to become a slum and what is being done to improve it. If any student is not able to compose such an essay, have him tell you orally what he thinks has taken place.

This series of lessons helps the child develop a concept of slums, involves him in an analysis of slum conditions, asks him to relate, coordinate and integrate ideas concerning slums, and finally, involves him in a decision-making situation about slum clearance and prevention. These levels of thought are essential if the pupils are to arrive at the unit's major understanding through the inquiry-oriented approach. Through such a series of lessons, learners increase their ability to investigate urban problems, and undoubtedly will develop a greater concern for the well-being of the less fortunate members of their local or metropolitan communities.

CHAPTER XXI

WORLD ORDER A BASIS FOR EDUCATION FOR CHANGE AND SURVIVAL

By Betty Reardon

In an age when the very survival of mankind on planet earth is endangered by the inability of obsolete institutions and ineffective behaviors to deal with threats to man's survival, education for change is urgent. Social education should be primarily concerned with teaching and learning experiences which can contribute to both institutional change and behavioral change. It should be addressing itself not only to the crucial public issues and problems of our age, which dictate the need for change, but also to the personal concerns of students who must be educated to make the required changes.

There is no doubt that students are concerned with and affected by change. There is equally little doubt that their education is not adequately preparing them to cope with and control the forces of change. The rapid progression of social, political, and environmental problems we now face combined by the slow and often inadequate responses from our established institutions have produced severe crises within our political system. Perhaps these crises are most readily apparent in the order and justice conflict which shakes our society today. Students have been caught very much in this crisis as well as in the crisis of the relationship of the individual to his nation in time of war. Although the responses from the young have been varied, most of them indicate a crying need for what they describe as a more "relevant education." They are plunged into deep and crucial value conflicts. They are faced with a growing feeling of powerlessness in the face of these personal and political conflicts. Many of them have been

totally alienated from the society and have even "opted out" through entry into various subcultures and retreat into drugs. Too many of them are making their action choices on the basis of "selling out" and remaining helplessly within the main stream of society or "opting out" and letting the main stream of society run its course into what appears to be ultimate oblivion. Clearly, they have not been given a range of choices, much less a range of positive choices, which might help them to go beyond the destructive either/or pattern which is all too prevalent.

Schools must begin to help students to formulate and select from alternatives and to help them to honestly and openly confront major controversial issues which concern them personally and which certainly concern the future of our society. One of the most crucial of these issues is war.

Of all the crises which threaten human survival now, including population growth and widespread poverty as well as environmental decay, the one which seems to be most immediate, in that it could precipitate destruction almost immediately, is warfare. It is ironic that of all major survival issues it is the one receiving the least attention in the classrooms of this nation. It is also the one which is of most immediate concern to students who, by and large, have been more perceptive in the realization of the interrelationships of these problems than have been their educators or their political leaders. One need only look at the young faces in demonstrations for environmental action to see that these are the same young people who have manifested concern about war. Their elders often interpret this as not being able to stick with one subject or the inability to see a problem through to its solution. It is, however, the educators and the political leaders who should begin to think about the fact that these youngsters are concerned with all of these problems and that the one problem which could take the lives of anyone of those young people at any moment, is the problem of warfare. Young men who are in senior high school today will possibly be in the rice paddies

of Vietnam tomorrow or perhaps in some other part of the world remote to them but inextricably entwined with their lives. It is these young men who must face the choice of serving or not serving in the armed forces, who must deal with the possibility that if they serve they may one day be accused of war crimes, and who may have to pay the ultimate cost of war, their lives. The young women of this age must face the possibility of being helpless observers to the decimation of another generation of young men and of having little possibility of actually dealing with the problem, other than the kinds of things they have been able to do through demonstrations, student strikes, and acts which in the end are powerful symbols but not tools for change.

If educators wish to change the behavior of students, if we wish to see behavior which we consider to be positive and constructive, then we too must change. We must confront these problems ourselves. We must try to think in practical, positive alternatives and above all we must use our professional expertise to help our students to think in these terms. Why not begin to change by introducing the subject of war as a problem to be solved into our curricula?

This is not to say that the mere inclusion of any one subject can contribute significantly to behavioral change. But combined with participatory teaching strategies which demonstrate to students that they have a degree of control over their own learning, classroom confrontation of such issues may help them transfer their concern to actual activity in the problem areas sorely in need of solution. Indeed, our purpose should be more than just helping the young to <u>cope</u> with stress and change. We must teach toward the development of skills for the <u>control</u> and <u>direction</u> of change. The schools should be helping students to understand that they need not accept an inevitable and unwanted future, but that they may be able to identify options, to formulate alternatives from which they may select a preferred

future and work toward it using the equipment provided by a "relevant" curriculum, - the much-overworked and little-understood term.

A relevant curriculum, whether it is based on the Black Experience, the environmental crisis or the issue of war, deals with crucial issues and directly confronts student concerns. The relevant curriculum also looks to the direction toward which we traditionally point students, the future. Present curricula are almost exclusively focused on the past and the present. Even through such devices as inquiry, value analysis and simulation, the young are not going to find all the clues they need to cope with the post-industrial nuclear age in reflection on the past, even when it is combined with examination of present issues. Curriculum for behavioral change, a relevant curriculum, should be futuristic. The field of futurism has devised a number of responsible and effective tools of analysis which should become part of the fund of skills we offer our students. The mastery of such skills is one way of helping to relieve feelings of powerlessness and alienation and of providing a sense of the possibilities for controlling change. Intelligent application of futuristics offers some hope of replacing an inevitable future with a preferred one.

The term "preferred" indicates selection among alternatives. If we are to teach for behavioral change, the curriculum must present alternatives, i.e., possibilities for various behaviors, and it must prepare students to determine preferences and help them work for their realization. The concepts and methodology of "alternative futures" make such preparation possible. Although the topic may seem esoteric to many educators, some of us now assert that it should be a crucial component of the social studies. One very cogent case for this assertion appears in "Relevance and the Curriculum" by Lawrence Metcalf and Maurice Hunt,[1] an article

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[1] Phi Delta Kappan, March, 1970.

spelling out a methodology of alternative futures called "relevant utopias"; another is "Education for Survival" by William Boyer[2], which makes a strong case for education for future planning. A futuristic perspective is also advocated by "An Examination of Objectives, Needs and Priorities in International Education in U. S. Secondary and Elementary Schools" completed in 1969 for the USOE by the Foreign Policy Association. Many of us remember a time when such a subject as anthropology was offered only for specialization in the universities. Those who advocated that it offered a likely medium through which secondary schools might objectively approach such issues as racial prejudice and conflict were widely viewed as pleaders for the special interests of one discipline which could only be included in the curriculum at the cost of sacrificing the truly basic and necessary topics of social education such as state history. Although courses on futurism are now proliferating in the universities, some of the same attitudes formerly encountered by the social science disciplines are now directed at this new subject. Entrenchment against change is not unusual, but this attitude toward the use of alternative futures is particularly remarkable when one reflects that virtually no one in this society would buy an automobile before test driving it. Vacuum cleaners are demonstrated before purchase by salesmen eager to convince that their models are superior to all other models. Every day we select preferences on the basis of trials and tests of various items intended for the same purpose. We try out different fashions and even different life-styles and value systems. Testing alternatives of these kinds to determine what we really think works best for us is very much

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[2] Ibid., January 1971 (reprints of both are available from World Law Fund, 11 West 42nd Street, New York 10036).

part of our contemporary culture. Students, for instance, are urged to weigh the benefits of alternative careers or colleges. It is high time that we applied this mind-set to social and political institutions and to the curriculum. There is no more appropriate subject with which to apply it than the study of alternatives to the war system. One of the most appropriate modes of inquiry into the subject is futurology, a mode central to world order studies. World order is the perspective which the World Law Fund applies to the study of the problem of eliminating warfare. Essentially, it is a futuristic global and value centered exploration of alternative world political systems, described as models. The purpose of the exploration is to determine which kind of system is most likely to eliminate warfare and promote greater social justice as well as economic welfare, environmental balance and wider participation in policy making. World order emphasizes two fairly simple devices of futurology which have been very fruitful in the development of skills for coping with change and in devising war/peace curriculum. These devices are models and scenarios. Futurists use scenarios, speculative narratives of future events to create images of the future. Implicit in such narratives usually are descriptions of social and political institutions which can be extrapolated from the scenario. Such descriptions are models of the future systems and constitute a useful medium for the study of alternative futures.

Study of alternative futures for the world political system in the form of various system models is at the core of the world order approach to war/peace issues which is developing modes of describing and attaining "preferred worlds." World order models are behavioral descriptions of world political systems, proposed for the purpose of realizing the five forementioned values: the control and limitation of violence, the expansion of economic welfare and social justice, broadening participation in political decision-making, and the restoration of a healthful environmental balance.

World order studies, therefore, offer opportunity for curriculum on change and also fulfill the recommendation of the USOE study, "Needs and Priorities in International Education," that the international system be studied as one level of human social organization. From the world order perspective, the international system is studied in terms of its ability to achieve the five values. The most significant questions raised by the inquiry are: How does the system work? How can it be made to work better? Are there alternative systems which would be more efficient in maximizing these values? How will it be possible to achieve a preferred alternative? In dealing with these various questions, models are helpful because they concretize proposals for alternatives and make it possible to study and to evaluate them - in other words, to "test drive" alternative international systems.

Most students have already had experience with models. If they live in a planned community or housing development, it is quite probable that they live in a house which their parents selected after having visited various model homes to determine which would be best for their family's needs and within the reach of their purses. If they themselves have not constructed model airplanes or model missiles, they have probably observed their friends doing so or have seen their fathers using a plan to put together a toy or an appliance.

Models have been used to teach many subjects for so long that most high school students have also had experience with them as learning instruments. In shop they work with model engines; in biology they study models of the various physiological systems; in chemistry, physics and math they work with actual models or visual descriptions of models in the form of diagrams, charts and so forth.

The use of models to simulate a situation so as to give people unfamiliar with the specific situation an idea of what it is like, or for the purpose of training those individuals who will actually be in that situation,

is now familiar to all of us through our space program. We all know about the training of astronauts, and how they are prepared to face conditions previously unknown by Earth men by experiencing simulated conditions. We have seen photographs of the models used to practice the manipulation of their spacecrafts and landing modules. These simulations and models also make it possible to describe to the public at large just exactly what the astronauts will be doing and how they will do it. These devices are instructive and informative and we have all witnessed their effectiveness.

The curricular applicability of simulations and models to the study of present and past international systems now seems to be catching on in our schools. It is really not so great a leap to apply the technique to the study of future systems.

Such activities are based upon the assumption that participatory inquiry carries the possibility of more learning payoff than a traditional inquiry or even a dialogue approach. Exercises may be effectively conducted in small groups addressing themselves to specific inquiry tasks which will form the basis for a general discussion by an entire group. Such experiences represent a futuristic inquiry into alternative world political systems which I believe to be the essential component of education for change and survival.

PART V

CHAPTER XXII

RETOOLING FOR BEHAVIORAL CHANGE

By Desmond H. Bragg

The foregoing chapters have attempted to demonstrate how teachers may utilize various disciplines and teaching materials to breathe new life into social studies classrooms. Goals are delineated in specific programs which clarify how to get from the old to the new. Allowing for unforeseen needs of an ever-changing society, these new concepts and methods should serve the classroom teacher well into the seventies.

The development of inquiry skills and other skills related to forming sound judgments and critical thinking are key concepts in social studies teaching. Classroom teachers who learn the lessons implied here will make their teaching relevant and dynamic, and will have a lasting salutary impact on their students. The teaching of the key concepts and generalizations of the various disciplines--along with the tools of social change implied in the disciplines--requires the best and most sustained effort teachers can bring to bear on them. The new breed of social studies teachers seems interested in helping students to become involved, committed, and active in attempting to foster social change.

Inter-disciplinary attacks on community social problems must continue to find their way into the social studies classroom. The problems of the social order do not often fall into neat and simple categories fitting only one discipline; rather they cross discipline lines with increasing frequency. Students who have learned to think only in neat compartment-like categories will be frustrated because of their inability to deal with issues effectively.

The skills and processes described here are not easily mastered. Students who want quick and easy answers or "now" solutions must be assisted by teachers who can patiently seek to instill qualities of character, moral

courage and mental discipline essential to sustained and mature intellectual effort.

Behavioral Objectives

Behavioral Objectives (see Chapter II by Sidney J. Drumheller) are tools for translating the broad goals of education into specifics which have a real and lasting impact on the growth and development of youth. It is one thing to state broad generalized objectives, but quite another to translate these into specific behaviors designed to assist the student to cope more effectively with his environment and peers, as well as with his own personal-social development. Good citizens are first of all good people whose lives are whole and integrated. They have learned the social skills required to function smoothly in the maze of forces and situations that confront the typical dweller in modern urban societies. This implies not only thought processes but emotional and affective processes, which are the wellsprings of motivation and action.

The emotions are far more important as influences for good than they are generally credited with being. As one writer put it, "The intellect is a mere speck on a sea of emotion." This view is not unrealistic when one considers that our daily lives are almost constantly affected by likes, dislikes, personality clashes, sexual interests, moods, frustrations, joys and sorrows. All of these emotions play an important part in our attitudes toward our jobs, colleagues, families and peers, as well as to our communities and their problems. An individual who has a difficult time coping with the emotional side of his immediate life can hardly be expected to have the time, interest, or desire to contribute to the ongoing life of the community and to the

solution of its problems. Behavioral patterns associated with the emotional life of students must be a major concern of the modern social studies teachers.

Citizenship is a major behavioral goal of teaching the social studies. Teachers must continue to refine their performance by seeking ways to get students involved. The lowering of the voting age to eighteen makes political responsibility a focal point of concern. Teachers will find ample opportunity to involve their students in the warp and woof of the democratic processes at the local level. The imaginative teacher will find dozens of ways to get students involved in community political improvement. The book Promising Practices in Civic Education[1] can serve as a resource for those interested in adding relevancy to their teaching.

Development of an International Outlook

A major behavioral goal is development of active participation in the effort to bring about world peace. Furthering of world understanding through a more intimate knowledge of other countries, their customs, habits and institutions, is one way to reach this important goal. Chapters IX and X have clearly shown how to teach for this objective. In-depth studies of other nations will need to increase in quantity if the goal of world civilization is to become reality.

Chapter XXI by Betty Reardon offers an example of the way modern

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[1]Robinson, Donald W., editor, Promising Practices in Civic Education, National Council for the Social Studies, 1967, Washington, D. C.

educators seek to keep the curriculum tuned to the changing patterns of world events. Simulation games and other devices can help teachers and students alike to see more clearly the complexities of geopolitical issues.

International studies -- political, legal, cultural and social -- must claim more classroom time if we are to raise the level of sophistication in understanding world affairs.

Use of the Social Science Disciplines

The behavioral sciences of sociology, anthropology and social psychology are particularly useful for teaching behavioral changes in students. Robert Fitch (Chapter XVIII) illustrates the application of these studies. An understanding of why man behaves as he does and how his behavior is changed through social institutions can contribute to more viable solutions to such social problems as civil strife, bigotry, racial or religious intolerance, ethnocentrism, and war itself. Social studies teachers at first may expect too much of their new-found application of the behavioral sciences, but more intensive effort is likely to pay dividends in individual behavioral growth and insights into social patterns and institutions.

The new geography examines such problems as urban societies, the need for wiser use of our environment and resources, and the recurring threat of over-population. Sharon Cousins deals with some of the new concepts of geography in Chapter VIII on the High School Geography Project. Students who learn to use geographic information in problem-solving situations should be taught also to apply other disciplines in conjunction with geography.

Teaching Values

The affective area of social studies learning is, as we have said before, the "heart" of the social studies curriculum since it corresponds to the emotional and subjective side of human affairs and lends itself particularly to behavioral change. The chapter on teaching of values by Dyer has special significance for the new social studies. In the "good old days" a great deal of emphasis was placed on teaching of character and moral and spiritual values. Again today, in different garb, there is renewed emphasis in this direction. It is hoped that this trend may help students find their way through a maze of fast-changing secular and social mores. Old family, community and church ties lose their power as more and more youth move to large cities and find there an anonymity not present back in the home town. The rise in juvenile crime is one evidence that many youth drift without moorings or direction in a vacuum or spiritual void. This drifting may lead to depression and tragic errors, ruining or badly scarring young lives. If there is truth to the old belief that moral decay contributed to the decline of the Roman Empire, it is worth any price to prevent the wreckage of individual lives as a means of avoiding social disorders. The tragedy of Hitler and the aftermath of his unforgettable deeds give one pause for reflection; for if policies of genocide and mass murder can come from a relatively civilized nation containing thousands of churches and millions of religious people, what nation can claim to be immune to such occurrences? Surely not our own country with its high rate of violent crimes, our history of political assassinations and racial killings. Leaders such as Dr. Sidney Simon of the University of Massachusetts are providing new ways to assist teachers in helping young people with problems of value clarification and consequent changes in behavior. Leaders

of the new social studies are saying that we dare not leave value and character formation to chance. The issue is too important, both to the emotional health of the individual and to the social order.

Humanities and the Social Studies

Closely allied with teaching of values are the humanities, including such human endeavors as drama, literature, art, music and poetry, all of which can convey meaning and substance to the emotional and philosophical side of man's nature. The necessity to motivate students to action, commitment and involvement sends the teacher in search of materials which lend emotional appeal to what otherwise are only dry facts. Man is an emotional creature, moved primarily by appeals to his affective nature.

Protest songs about the war in Vietnam or about racial injustice, or plays which depict the social and psychological effects of poverty, ignorance, and bigotry, can be powerful tools for teaching significant truths about society and its problems. They serve well as focal points for discussion and clarification of the issues involved. The heart and the head of man must be educated, but it is the hand that makes action possible. To that area we now turn our attention.

THE TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

It is one thing to speak of the form and substance of the new social studies, but these somehow must be translated into a plan of action and means for implementation if real change is to be accomplished. Section II of the text is largely designed to do just that. Chapters IV through IX show how to use relevant and productive techniques for organizing classroom teaching to achieve the broad as well as the specific behavioral goals of social studies teaching. Clair Keller's chapter on inquiry teaching (Chapter III)

illustrates practical applications of this goal. Dr. Keller takes the reader through the inquiry steps involved in historical research. His model is clear, to the point, and should prove helpful to those looking for practical guides to this technique.

Roger Ratcliff demonstrates how the classroom behavior of students may be changed through one's teaching techniques. (See Chapter V). Changed behavior is after all the only objective evidence that teaching is effective in reaching goals. Teachers who draw up behavioral objectives as expressed by Ratcliff and Drumheller will continue to hit the mark with increasing frequency. Inquiry teaching, a difficult task requiring attention to detail, is an essential element in the teacher's repertoire of performance skills.

Attention to Individual Needs

It is one of the continuing hard facts of teaching that classes are made of individuals with varying needs, capacities, interests, and problems. Marion Evashevski and Howard Strong show in Chapter VII one of the major attempts to fill the needs of individuals in the public schools. It is essential that increasing attention be given to meeting individual needs within the confines of the school.

Teachers' energies have limitations. We face the necessity of conserving strength and employing it in the very best way possible. The current stress on accountability in teaching performance as shown by student growth will find wider acceptance. All must assume their share of responsibility for student behavioral growth. Attention to individual needs will aid in achievement of that goal.

A Final Word About Directions for Future Growth

We hear much these days about a relatively new emphasis in education called "futurism." By this is meant what used to be called prophecy or

"looking into the crystal ball." Futurists do not have any crystal ball or claim any spiritual powers from above, but they warn us that man cannot drift from one crisis to another at the mercy of winds of chance. Rather we must, say the futurists, be architects of the future. This job will call for the highest kind of insight and the greatest depth of knowledge and understanding of which we are capable. The implications of futurism for education are complex and can only be sketched here in brief outline.

Just as the market analyst serves a function for investors, it seems logical to assume that society should have some leaders in the field of forecasting future directions and trends and what these mean for man's well being.

Much of social studies teaching in the past has been oriented toward that past. Today and in the future teachers will attempt to relate classroom learning toward both the here and now and to the future. Rapid change and increased interdependency among nations make it imperative that we give high priority to closer examination of future bends in the road. Just as a man driving a car at 100 miles per hour must think further ahead than one who is going only 30 miles per hour, so a people who live with rapid and accelerating change must be ready to adapt to fastmoving events with greater ease and grace. We cannot teach for preserving the status quo if those conditions do not exist by the time students reach maturity and take their places as leaders.

Not only coping with change, but anticipating it, preparing for it, and giving it direction, will present challenges of almost unbelievable dimensions to teachers and citizens of the future. Those who cannot meet the demands of such a social order will fall by the wayside or take a minor role in directing human affairs.

It therefore falls on the shoulders of social studies teachers as well as curriculum experts to devise ways to teach about social change, its dominant characteristics, and means for directing its progress. Currently new work is being done in this area which will no doubt appear in the near future. Social studies teachers today can give attention to aspects of change and futurism which are already widely known and practiced. Sociology and anthropology offer many fruitful examples of social change and of organizations and institutions which served as vehicles for change in the past. Problem-solving, critical thinking skills, and other techniques for securing action and using channels of power, are tools available to most citizens. Teachers can inform themselves in order to guide youth in the proper ways for intelligent citizen action and involvement. If this can be done more effectively by increasing numbers of the teaching profession, the future of the country will be in good hands.

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